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Youth and the Life Cycle

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"HE SHALL BE ENTITLED to grow and develop in health. . . ." So has declared the United Nations of this new infant of the Philippines and of all other children in the world, through a Declaration of the Rights of the Child, adopted unanimously by the General As-

sembly on November 20, 1959. (Full text on page 74.) Twenty-eight nations were involved over a period of 12 years in preparing the draft of the declaration which was transmitted to the Assembly last summer by the Economic and Social Council.

Beginning on July 1, Erik H. Erikson will become professor of human development and lecturer in psychiatry at Harvard University, teaching undergraduates as well as medical and other graduate students and continuing his clinical studies. He will continue to serve the Austen Riggs Center as consultant. A graduate of the Vienna Psychoanalytic Institute, he is now a professor at the University of Pittsburgh's School of Medicine.



Besides working with the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth, Betty Barton, left, has been assistant to the Chief of the Children's Bureau since 1954. Previously she spent 7 years working with displaced persons and refugees in Germany and Austria—for UNRRA, the American Friends Service Committee, and the U.S. Department of State. Katharine Pringle, right, has worked for *Time*, *Life*, and *Fortune*, and has done free-lance writing.



A member of the board of the Council of National Organizations, Edward A. Richards has served on the editorial advisory committee for the volume which will summarize reports of national organizations to the 1960 White House Conference. Before taking his present position last August, he was for 13 years deputy director of the American Junior Red Cross. He has recently published his second book of poems, "Cathedral."



published his

Since receiving his Ph. D. in psychology at Harvard University, Daniel Horn has done research in the psychological factors in aircraft accidents, the epidemiology of lung cancer, and public opinion as it relates to health education problems. He has been on the staff of the American Cancer Society for the past thirteen years.



A social work graduate of the Universities of Utah and Denver, John C. Kidneigh has been director of the University of Minnesota School of Social Work for more than a decade. He has held positions in child welfare, public welfare, and community organization as practitioner, administrator and teacher, and various professional offices.



Alex Rosen won the Annisfield-Wolf Award from *Saturday Review* in 1956, with John P. Dean, for their book, "Manual on Intergroup Relations." Mr. Rosen has served as assistant director of Cornell University's study of intergroup relations and as member of the faculty at New York University and at Yeshiva University.



◀ the authors

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TEN YEARS AGO in his book, "Childhood and Society,"¹ Erik H. Erikson, psychoanalyst, teacher, and artist, presented a life cycle theory of personality development in which social drives play as important a part as biological urges in the child's struggle toward maturity. The theory, elaborated by Professor Erikson in a paper entitled "Growth and Crises of the Healthy Personality,"² became the core of the factfinding material presented to the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, a conference focused on the development of a healthy personality. In the ensuing decade Erikson's eight "stages of psychosocial development," each harboring

a special crisis which must be fought through before the next stage can be reached, have become as familiar to students of child development as the dangers confronted by John Bunyan's Christian were to the persons who guided children a century ago. They have been emphasized not only in the training of psychiatrists, but also in the training of teachers, nurses, social workers, and parent educators and in parent discussion groups in places far and wide. A brief description of each stage and the special crisis it harbors is presented in the box on page 45.

With the Midcentury White House Conference fading into history the question now arises as to the pertinence

of its core theory to the problems to which the participants of the approaching Golden Anniversary Conference on Children and Youth will be addressing themselves. In what directions has the originator of this conception of child development been thinking in the interim? What concerns him most today about the youth in "the world around the young" and "the young in the world," the twin subjects of the new Conference? How would he apply his life-cycle theory to the Conference's theme-stated emphasis on values?

With such questions in mind, the editor of CHILDREN recently spent a day with Professor Erikson. The following article is based on this interview.

YOUTH AND THE LIFE CYCLE

an interview with **ERIK H. ERIKSON**

Senior Staff Member, Austen Riggs Center, Stockbridge, Mass.

Question: Are there any points about your concepts of psychosocial development which you would now like to stress in the light of what you have heard about how they have been interpreted during the past decade in the training of professional persons and through them of parents and future parents?

Yes, I am grateful for the opportunity of making a few observations on the reception of these concepts. You emphasize their influence on teaching in various fields; let me pick out a few misunderstandings.

I should confess to you here how it all started. It was on a drive in the countryside with Mrs. Erikson that I became a bit expansive, telling her about a kind of ground plan in the human life cycle, which I seemed to discern in life histories. After a while she began to write, urging me just to go on; she had found my "plan" immediately convincing. Afterwards, a number of audiences of different pro-

fessional backgrounds had that same sense of conviction—so much so that I (and others) became somewhat uneasy: after all, these psychosocial signposts are hardly *concepts* yet, even if the whole plan represents a valid *conception*, one which suggests a great deal of work.

What Mrs. Erikson and I subsequently offered to the White House Conference of 1950 was a kind of worksheet, which has, indeed, been used by others as well as myself in scientific investigation, and well integrated in a few textbooks.³ But its "convincingness" has also led to oversimplifications. Let me tell you about a few.

There has been a tendency here and there to turn the eight stages into a sort of rosary of achievement, a device for counting the fruits of each stage—trust, autonomy, initiative, and so forth—as though each were achieved as a permanent trait. People of this bent are apt to leave out the negative counterparts of each stage, as if the healthy personality had per-

manently conquered these hazards. The fact is that the healthy personality must reconquer them continuously in the same way that the body's metabolism resists decay. All that we learn are certain fundamental means and mechanisms for retaining and regaining mastery. Life is a sequence not only of developmental but also of accidental crises. It is hardest to take when both types of crisis coincide.

In each crisis, under favorable conditions, the positive is likely to outbalance the negative, and each reintegration builds strength for the next crisis. But the negative is always with us to some degree in the form of a measure of infantile anxiety, fear of abandonment—a residue of immaturity carried throughout life, which is perhaps the price man has to pay for a childhood long enough to permit him to be the learning and the teaching animal, and thus to achieve his particular mastery of reality.

You may be interested to know that further clinical research has indicated that our dream life often depicts a recovery of mastery along the lines of these stages. Moreover, nurses have observed that any adult who undergoes serious surgery has to repeat the battle with these nemeses in the process of recovery. A person moves up and down the scale of maturity, but if his ego has gained a positive balance during his developmental crises the downward movements will be less devastating than if the balance, at one stage or another, was in the negative.

Of all the positive aspects mentioned, trust seems to have been the most convincing—so convincing, in fact, that some discussions never reach a consideration of the other stages. I don't mean to detract from the obvious importance of trust as the foundation of the development of a healthy personality. A basic sense of trust in living as such, developed in infancy through the reciprocal relationship of child and mother, is essential to winning the positive fruits of all the succeeding crises in the life cycle: maybe this is what Christmas, with its Madonna images, conveys to us. Yet, it is the nature of human life that each succeeding crisis takes place within a widened social radius where an ever-larger number of significant persons have a bearing on the outcome. There is in childhood, first, the maternal person, then the parental combination, then the basic family and other instructing adults. Youth demands "confirmation" from strangers who hold to a design of life; and later, the adult needs challenges from mates and partners, and even from his growing children and expanding works, in order to continue to grow himself. And all of these relationships

must be imbedded in an "ethos," a cultural order, to guide the individual's course.

In our one-family culture (supported by pediatricians and psychiatrists who exclusively emphasize the mother-child relationship) we tend to lose sight of the fact that other people besides parents are important to youth. Too often we ask only where a given youth came from and what he once was, and not also where he was going, and who was ready to receive him and his intentions and his specific gifts. Thus we have movements to punish parents for the transgressions of their children, ignoring all the other persons and environmental factors that entered into the production of a young person's unacceptable behavior and failed to offer support to his positive search.

Another way in which the life cycle theory has been oversimplified is in the omission of stages which do not fit into the preconceived ideas of the person who is adopting or adapting the theory. Thus a large organization devoted to parenthood distributed a list of the stages but omitted *integrity vs. despair*—the problem of senescence. This is too easy a way to dispose of grandparents; it robs life of an inescapable final step; and, of course, it defeats this whole conception of an intrinsic order in the life cycle.

This kind of omission ignores the "cogwheeling" of infantile and adult stages—the fact that each further stage of growth in a given individual is not only dependent upon the relatively successful completion of his own previous stages, but also on the completion of the subsequent stages in those other individuals with whom he interacts and whom he accepts as models.

Finally, I should point to the fact that what my psychoanalytic colleagues warned me of most energetically has, on occasion, come to pass: even sincere workers have chosen to ignore my emphasis on the intrinsic relation of the psychosocial to the psychosexual stages which form the basis of much of Freud's work.

All of these misuses, however, may be to a large extent the fault of my choice of words. The use of simple, familiar words like "trust" and "mistrust" apparently leads people to assume that they know "by feel" what the theory is all about. Perhaps this semantic problem would have been avoided if I had used Latin terms, which call for definitions.

I may point out, however, that I originally suggested my terms as a basis for discussions—discussions led by people who have an idea of the

The Eight Stages in the Life Cycle of Man

"Personality," Erikson has written, "can be said to develop according to steps predetermined in the human organism's readiness to be driven toward, to be aware of, and to interact with a widening social radius, beginning with a dim image of a mother and ending with an image of mankind. . . ." Following are the steps he has identified in man's psychosocial development, and the special crises they bring. In presenting them, he has emphasized that while the struggle between the negatives and positives in each crisis must be fought through successfully if the next developmental stage is to be reached, no victory is completely or forever won.

I. Infancy: Trust *vs.* Mistrust. The first "task" of the infant is to develop "the cornerstone of a healthy personality," a basic sense of trust—in himself and in his environment. This comes from a feeling of inner goodness derived from "the mutual regulation of his receptive capacities with the maternal techniques of provision"²—a quality of care that transmits a sense of trustworthiness and meaning. The danger, most acute in the second half of the first year, is that discontinuities in care may increase a natural sense of loss, as the child gradually recognizes his separateness from his mother, to a basic sense of mistrust that may last through life.

II. Early Childhood: Autonomy *vs.* Shame and Doubt. With muscular maturation the child experiments with holding on and letting go and begins to attach enormous value to his autonomous will. The danger here is the development of a deep sense of shame and doubt if he is deprived of the opportunity to learn to develop his will as

he learns his "duty," and therefore learns to expect defeat in any battle of wills with those who are bigger and stronger.

III. Play Age: Initiative *vs.* Guilt. In this stage the child's imagination is greatly expanded because of his increased ability to move around freely and to communicate. It is an age of intrusive activity, avid curiosity, and consuming fantasies which lead to feelings of guilt and anxiety. It is also the stage of the establishment of conscience. If this tendency to feel guilty is "overburdened by all-too-eager adults" the child may develop a deep-seated conviction that he is essentially bad, with a resultant stifling of initiative or an conversion of his moralism to vindictiveness.

IV. School Age: Industry *vs.* Inferiority. The long period of sexual latency before puberty is the age when the child wants to learn how to do and make things with others. In learning to accept instruction and to win recognition by producing "things" he opens the way for the capacity of work enjoyment. The danger in this period is the development of a sense of inadequacy and inferiority in a child who does not receive recognition for his efforts.

V. Adolescence: Identity *vs.* Identity Diffusion. The physiological revolution that comes with puberty—rapid body growth and sexual maturity—forces the young person to question "all sameness and continuities relied on earlier" and to "refight many of the earlier battles." The developmental task is to integrate childhood identifications "with the basic biological drives, native endowment, and the opportunities offered in social roles." The danger is

that identity diffusion, temporarily unavoidable in this period of physical and psychological upheaval, may result in a permanent inability to "take hold" or, because of youth's tendency to total commitment, in the fixation in the young person of a negative identity, a devoted attempt to become what parents, class, or community do not want him to be.

VI. Young Adulthood: Intimacy *vs.* Isolation. Only as a young person begins to feel more secure in his identity is he able to establish intimacy with himself (with his inner life) and with others, both in friendships and eventually in a love-based mutually satisfying sexual relationship with a member of the opposite sex. A person who cannot enter wholly into an intimate relationship because of the fear of losing his identity may develop a deep sense of isolation.

VII. Adulthood: Generativity *vs.* Self-absorption. Out of the intimacies of adulthood grows generativity—the mature person's interest in establishing and guiding the next generation. The lack of this results in self-absorption and frequently in a "pervading sense of stagnation and interpersonal impoverishment."

VIII. Senescence: Integrity *vs.* Disgust. The person who has achieved a satisfying intimacy with other human beings and who has adapted to the triumphs and disappointments of his generative activities as parent and coworker reaches the end of life with a certain ego integrity—an acceptance of his own responsibility for what his life is and was and of its place in the flow of history. Without this "accrued ego integration" there is despair, usually marked by a display of displeasure and disgust.

interrelatedness of all aspects of human development. For the eight stages of psychosocial development are, in fact, inextricably entwined in and derived from the various stages of psychosexual development that were described by Freud, as well as from the child's stages of physical, motor, and cognitive development. Each type of development affects the other and is

affected by it. Thus, I feel that discussants would do well to study each key word in its origins, in its usage in various periods and regions, and in other languages. Simple words that touch upon universal human values have their counterpart in every living language, and can become vehicles of understanding at international conferences.

Incidentally, I made up one new word because I thought it was needed. To me, "generativity" described the chief characteristic of the mature adult. It was turned into a comfortable, if inaccurate, homespun word before it ever left the Fact-Finding Committee of 1950. I had deliberately chosen "generativity" rather than "parenthood," or "creativity," because these narrowed the matter down to a biological and an artistic issue instead of describing the deep absorption in guiding the young or in helping to create a new world for the young, which is a mark of maturity in parents and nonparents, working people and "creative" people alike.

Enough of this fault-finding! But it is interesting to see what can happen to new ideas; and you did ask me.

Question: During the past 10 years you have been treating and studying mentally ill young people at a public clinic in a low-income area in Pittsburgh and at a private, comparatively expensive, mental hospital in the Berkshires. Have you found any common denominator in the disturbances of these patients—from such opposite walks of life—that would seem to point to any special difficulty harassing the young people of our land today?

Since 1950, I have concentrated on the life histories of sick young people in late adolescence and early adulthood primarily in order to study one of the crises magnified, as it were, with the clinical microscope. I think that our initial formulations of the identity crisis have been clinically validated and much refined.⁴

Many of these sick young people in their late teens and early twenties had failed during their adolescence to win out in the struggle against identity confusion. They were suffering so seriously from a feeling of being (or, indeed, wanting to be) "nobody" that they were withdrawing from reality, and in some cases even attempting to withdraw from life itself: in other words, they were regressing to a position where trust had to be reinstated. Their malaise proved to be related to the same sense of diffuseness which drives other young adults to incessant and sometimes delinquent activity—an effort to show the world, including themselves, that they are "somebody" even if deep down they do not believe it.

In the meantime, of course, the identity issue has been taken up by many writers and by some magazines, almost in the form of a slogan. We are prone to think that we have cornered an issue when we have

found a name for it, and to have resolved it when we have found something to blame. So now we blame "the changing world."

Actually, there is no reason why youth should not participate with enthusiasm in radical change; young people are freer for change than we are. The bewildering thing for them must be that we now complain about change, having eagerly caused it ourselves with inventions and discoveries; that we seem to have played at change rather than to have planned it. If we had the courage of our inventions, if we would grow into the world we have helped to create, and would give youth co-responsibility in it, I think that all the potential power of the identity crisis would serve a better world than we can now envisage.

Let me say a word about identity, or rather about what it is not. The young person seeking an identity does not go around saying, even to himself, "Who am I?" as an editorial in a national magazine suggested last year's college graduates were doing on their way home. Nor does the person with a secure sense of identity usually stop to think or to brag about the fact that he has this priceless possession, and of what it consists. He simply feels and acts predominantly in tune with himself, his capacities, and his opportunities; and he has the inner means and finds the outer ways to recover from experiences which impair this feeling. He knows where he fits (or knowingly prefers not to fit) into present conditions and developments.

This sense of a coincidence between inner resources, traditional values, and opportunities of action is derived from a fusion of slowly grown, unconscious personality processes—and contemporary social forces. It has its earliest beginnings in the infant's first feelings of affirmation by maternal recognition and is nurtured on the quality and consistency of the parental style of upbringing. Thus identity is in a sense an outgrowth of all the earlier stages; but the crucial period for its development to maturity comes with the adolescent crisis.

Every adolescent is apt to go through some serious struggle at one time or another. The crises of earlier stages may return in some form as he seeks to free himself from the alignments of childhood because of both his own eagerness for adulthood and the pressures of society. For a while he may distrust what he once trusted implicitly; may be ashamed of his body, and doubtful of his future. He experiments, looking for affirmation and recognition from his friends and from the adults who mean most to him. Unconsciously, he revamps his repertory of child-

hood identifications, reviving some and repudiating others. He goes in for extremes—total commitments and total repudiations. His struggle is to make sense out of what has gone before in relation to what he now perceives the world to be, in an effort to find a persistent sameness in himself and a persistent sharing of some kind of essential character with others.

Far from considering this process to be a kind of maturational malaise, a morbid egocentricity of which adolescents must be "cured," we must recognize in it the search for new values, the willingness to serve loyalties which prove to be "true" (in any number of spiritual, scientific, technical, political, philosophical, and personal meanings of "truth") and thus a prime force in cultural rejuvenation.

The strengths a young person finds in adults at this time—their willingness to let him experiment, their eagerness to confirm him at his best, their consistency in correcting his excesses, and the guidance they give him—will codetermine whether or not he eventually makes order out of necessary inner confusion and applies himself to the correction of disordered conditions. He needs freedom to choose, but not so much freedom that he cannot, in fact, make a choice.

In some adolescents, in some cultures, in some historical epochs this crisis is minimal; in others it holds real perils for both the individual and society. Some individuals, particularly those with a weak preparation in their preceding developmental crises, succumb to it with the formation of neuroses and psychoses. Others try to resolve it through adherence—often temporary—to radical kinds of religious, political, artistic, or criminal ideologies.

A few fight the battle alone and, after a prolonged period of agony characterized by erratic mood swings and unpredictable and apparently dangerous behavior, become the spokesmen of new directions. Their sense of impending danger forces them to mobilize their capacities to new ways of thinking and doing which have meaning, at the same time, for themselves and their times. In my book "Young Man Luther"⁵ I have tried to show how identity is related to ideology and how the identity struggle of one intense young genius produced a new person, a new faith, a new kind of man, and a new era.

I think I chose to write about Luther and his time because there are many analogies between our time and his, although today the problems which beset all historical crises are global and, as it were, semifinal in character. Today, throughout the world, the increasing pace of technological change has encroached

upon traditional group solidarities and on their ability to transmit a sense of cosmic wholeness and technological planfulness to the young.

To me one of the most disturbing aspects of our technological culture is the imbalance between passive stimulation and active outlet in the pleasures that are sanctioned for young people. With the passing of the western frontier and the accelerated appearance of automatic gadgets, young people have become increasingly occupied with passive pursuits which require little participation of mind or body—being conveyed rapidly through space by machines and watching violent fantasies at the movies or on television—without the possibility of matching the passive experience with active pursuits. When an adolescent substitutes passivity for the adventure and activity which his muscular development and sexual drives require, there is always the danger of explosion—and I think that this accounts for much of the explosive, unexpected, and delinquent acts on the part of even our "nice" young people.

This is probably why "Westerns," always on the borderline of the criminal and the lawful, capture the passive imagination of a youth which has traditionally substituted identification with the rugged individualist—the pioneer who ventures into the unknown—for commitment to a political ideology; and which now finds itself confronted with increasing demands for standardization, uniformity, and conformity to the rituals of a status-convention. While the national prototype has historically been based on readiness for change, the range of possibilities of what one might choose to be and of opportunities to make a change have narrowed. To this has been added most recently the rude shaking of the once "eternal" image of our Nation's superiority in productivity and technical ingenuity through the appearance of Sputnik and its successors.

Thus one might say the complexity of the adolescent state and the confusion of the times meet head on.

However, I believe that the "confusion" derives from a hypocritical denial of our true position, both in regard to obvious dangers and true resources. When youth is permitted to see its place in a crisis, it will, out of its very inner dangers, gain the strength to meet the demands of the time.

Clinical experience with young people has, it is true, verified that combination of inner and outer dangers which explains aggravated identity crises. On the other hand, it has convinced me and my colleagues, even in hospital work, of the surprising re-

sources which young people can muster if their social responsibilities are called upon in a total environment of psychological understanding.

Question: Does this kind of confusion have anything to do with juvenile delinquency?

I would not want to add here to the many claims concerning distinct and isolated causes of juvenile delinquency. But I would like to stress one contributing factor: the confused attitudes of adults—both laymen and professionals—towards the young people whom we, with a mixture of condescension and fear, call teenagers.

Except perhaps in some rare instances of congenital defects resulting in a low capacity to comprehend values, juvenile delinquents are made, not born; and we adults make them. Here, I am not referring to their parents exclusively. True, many parents, because of their own personalities and backgrounds, are not able to give their children a chance for a favorable resolution of the identity crisis. Nor am I referring to the failure of society at large to correct those blights on the social scene—such as overcrowded slums and inequality of opportunities for minority groups—which make it impossible for tens of thousands of young people to envisage an identity in line with the prevailing success-and-status ideology.

Rather I am referring to the attitudes of adults—in the press, in court, and in some professional and social institutions—which push the delinquent young person into a “negative identity,” a prideful and stubborn acceptance of himself as a juvenile delinquent—and this at a time when his experimentation with available roles will make him exquisitely vulnerable (although he may not admit or even know it) to the opinions of the representatives of society. When a young person is adjudicated as a potential criminal because he has taken a girl for a ride in somebody else’s car (which he intended to abandon, not to appropriate), he may well decide, half consciously, of course, but none the less with finality, that to have any real identity at all he must be what he obviously *can* be—a delinquent. The scolding of young people in public for the indiscretions they have committed, with the expectation that they show remorse, often ignores all the factors in their histories that force them into a delinquent kind of experimentation. It is certainly no help toward a positive identity formation.

In his insistence on holding on to an active identity, even if it is temporarily a “negative” one from the point of view of society, the delinquent is sometimes potentially healthier than the young person who withdraws into a neurotic or a psychotic state. Some delinquents, perhaps, in their determination to be themselves at all costs and under terrible conditions have more strength and a greater potential for contributing to the richness of the national life than do many excessively conforming or neurotically defeatist members of their generation, who have given up youth’s prerogatives to dream and to dare. We must study this problem until we can overcome the kind of outraged bewilderment which makes the adult world seem untrustworthy to youth and hence may seem to justify the choice of a delinquent identity.

Actually, transitory delinquency, as well as other forms of antisocial or asocial behavior, often may be what I have called a *psychosocial moratorium*⁴—a period of delay in the assumption of adult commitment. Some youths need a period of relaxed expectations, of guidance to the various possibilities for positive identification through opportunities to participate in adult work, or even of introspection and experimentation—none of which can be replaced by either moralistic punishment or condescending forgiveness.

Question: The theme of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth charges the Conference with studying and understanding “the values and ideals of our society” in its efforts “to promote opportunities for children and youth to realize their full potential for a creative life in freedom and dignity.” On the basis of the scheme which you presented to us in 1950, could you add a word about how these values, once identified, can be transmitted in a way that will insure their incorporation into the value systems of the young?

Like every other aspect of maturity the virtues which we expect in a civilized human being grow in stages as the child develops from an infant to an adult. What is expected of a child at any time must be related to his total maturation and level of ego-strength, which are related to his motor, cognitive, psychosexual, and psychosocial stages. You can’t expect total obedience from a 2-year-old who must test a growing sense of autonomy, nor total truth from a 4-year-old involved in the creative but often guilt-ridden fantasies of the oedipal stage.

It would be in line with the course of other historical crises if in our Nation today a certain sense of

moral weakness were producing a kind of frantic wish to enforce moral strength in our youth with punitive or purely exhortative measures.

Today, a sense of crisis has been aggravated by the long cold war and the sudden revelation of the technical strength of a supposedly "backward" rival. We are wondering whether we have made our children strong enough for living in such an unpredictably dangerous world. Some people, who suddenly realize that they have not been responsible guardians of all the Nation's young, now wonder whether they should have beaten moral strength into them or preached certain absolute values more adamantly.

No period, however, can afford to go back on its advances in values and in knowledge, and I trust that the 1960 White House Conference will find a way to integrate our knowledge of personality development with our national values, necessities, and resources. What we need is not a plan whereby relatively irresponsible adults can enforce morality in their children, but rather national insistence on a more *responsible* morality on the part of adults, paired with an *informed* attitude toward the *development* of moral values in children. Values can only be fostered gradually by adults who have a clear conception of what to expect and what not to expect of the child as, at each stage, he comes to understand new segments of reality and of himself, and who are firm about what they are sure they *may* expect.

It must be admitted that psychiatry has added relatively little to the understanding of morality, except perhaps by delineating the great dangers of moralistic attitudes and measures which convince the child only of the adult's greater executive power, not of his actual moral power or true superiority. To this whole question, I can, on the basis of my own work, only indicate that the psychosocial stages discussed in 1950 seem to open up the possibility of studying the way in which in each stage of growth the healthy child's developmental drives dispose him toward a certain set of qualities which are the necessary fundaments of a responsible character: in *infancy*, hope and drive; in *early childhood*, will and control; in the *play age*, purpose and direction; in the *school age*, skill and method; and in *adolescence*, devotion and fidelity. The development of these basic qualities in children, however, depends on the corresponding development in adults of qualities related to: in *young adulthood*, love, work, and affiliation; in *adulthood*, care, parenthood, and produc-

tion; and in *old age*, "wisdom" and responsible renunciation.

Now I have given you another set of nice words, throwing to the winds my own warning regarding the way they can be misunderstood and misused. Let me point out, therefore, that I consider these basic virtues in line with our advancing psychoanalytic ego-psychology, on the one hand, and without advancing knowledge of psychosocial evolution, on the other, and that the conception behind this list can only be studied in the context of advancing science. I will discuss this further in a forthcoming publication,⁶ but I mention it now because I thought I owed you a reference to the way in which my contribution of 1950 has gradually led me in the direction of the great problem of the anchoring of virtue in human nature as it has evolved in our universe.

We ought to regard the breaking of a child's spirit—by cruel punishment, by senseless spoiling, by persistent hypocrisy—as a sin against humanity. Yet today we have back-to-the-woodshed movements. Last year in the legislature of one of our greatest States a bill was introduced to allow corporal punishment in the public schools and was lauded by part of the press. This gave the Soviets a chance to declare publicly against corporal punishment, implying that they are not sufficiently scared by their own youth to go back on certain considered principles in the rearing of the young. Actually, I think that we stand with the rest of the civilized world on the principle that if adult man reconsiders his moral position in the light of historical fact, and in the light of his most advanced knowledge of human nature, he can afford, in relation to his children, to rely on a forbearance which step by step will bring the best *out* of them.

The 1960 White House Conference comes just in time.

¹ Erikson, Erik H.: *Childhood and society*. W. W. Norton & Co., New York, 1950.

² _____: *Growth and crises of the "healthy personality."* In *Symposium on the healthy personality, supplement II; Problems of infancy and childhood*. M. J. E. Senn, ed. Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation, New York, 1950.

³ Stone, L. Joseph; Church, Joseph: *Childhood and adolescence; a psychology of the growing person*. Random House, New York, 1957.

⁴ Erikson, Erik H.: *The problem of ego identity*. *Journal of American Psychoanalytic Association*, April 1956.

⁵ _____: *Young man Luther*. W. W. Norton & Co., New York, 1958.

⁶ _____: *The roots of virtue*. In *The humanist frame*, Sir Julian Huxley, ed. Harper & Bros., New York (in preparation).

*The States and national voluntary organizations
report to the 1960 White House Conference on
conditions, problems, and needs of . . .*

TODAY'S CHILDREN AND YOUTH

I. As Viewed from the States

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THE SIXTH White House Conference on Children and Youth will be meeting in Washington March 27 to April 2; 7,000 people concentrating their strength to promote opportunities for children and youth "to realize their full potential for a creative life in freedom and dignity."

In addition to each conferee coming to Washington are many thousands of citizens who have spent the past year studying and discussing the needs of children in their communities. They have done these things under the stimulation and the direction of a committee designated by the Governor of their State to prepare for the 1960 White House Conference.

The multiple studies and reports of the think-sessions within each State have been incorporated into a State report for the White House Conference. Copies of the State reports were sent to the Conference staff in Washington last fall and are the basis for a summary volume of State reports, an official

White House Conference publication. These reports have the earth of America in them, the mud and the nurturing soil; the sunlight and the darkness; the sureness of dawn.

They do not come up with startlingly new knowledge or recommendations—in most instances what they recommend has been heard before from professional and technical groups dealing with health problems, adoptions, court programs for juveniles, dependency, and neglect, and from previous White House Conferences. They reflect, however, review of the total environment of all children rather than intense focus on any single aspect of the environment or any particular group of children. They evidence earnest stocktaking, adding up to a useful catalogue of unmet needs on which to base future programs. The significance is that even though they recognize that their recommendations mean more taxes, more coordination, and the sacrifice of vested interests, the citizen groups are making them to themselves—for action in counties and local communities and for mobilization for appropriations or other legislation necessary from the State and the Nation. The reports present a challenge to local and State governments, church groups, health and welfare agencies, community and State organizations, and the Nation as a whole to bestir themselves on behalf of children.

These two articles are based on the authors' reviews of the reports submitted by the States and national organizations to the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth. However, they are not official statements of the Conference, and responsibility for the selection and summary of materials rests with the authors.

Two volumes reporting more fully on the contents of the States' and national organizations' reports, being published by the Conference, will be available at the end of March 1960.

In most instances, the reports reflect the panorama of the society in which children are growing up: the impact of population increase and of mobility, of higher family income, of the invasion of the home by TV; an apparent lowering of moral and ethical standards among adults; increased church attendance; the prevalence of "going steady" among adolescents; early marriages; the economic necessity for young people to have at least a high school education; the nearness of the bigger world of jets and sputniks.

Occasionally a wisp of nostalgia creeps in—for the days of the woodshed and the chaperon. But few reports look backward. The prevalent view is that just around the corner—if we pool our resources, coordinate our efforts, push our research into practice, find the money and the trained staff—the good era is ahead.

The reports show faith in the democratic process, in today's young people, in the vigor of America. South Carolina writes: "Fortunately our youth are ahead of us in adjusting to changing situations. Like young people everywhere they accept change more readily than their parents . . ."

And a junior high school student tells a group of parents: "Give us that extra margin of time to forget the games of childhood and learn the game of life . . . We need you for leadership and guidance but you need us, too, for if there is to be a tomorrow, it will rest in our hands . . ."

How the Reports Were Prepared

The preparation of the reports within the States had all the ingenuity and variety characteristic of the democratic process. Most of the State committees, as a first step, set up factfinding committees which brought together background information—economic, social, demographic—relating to family life, and developed guides for use by county committees and other groups.

The county committees made local surveys, held countywide conferences, and sent reports on findings and recommendations to the State committee where the factfinding committees analyzed them along with reports prepared by Statewide organizations concerned with special areas of interest. The draft report thus developed was then, in most States, presented to a conference of several hundred persons for discussion in work groups and plenary sessions for revision and approval before being sent to Washington. Many county committees have published and distributed their reports and recommendations



Some school children of the 50th State, with their teacher. They and the rest of Hawaii's 250,000 children under 21 will be represented by 30 State delegates at the Conference.

locally. All the State reports are being given wide distribution.

There were many variations in the fact-finding methods. Questionnaires and public opinion polls were used extensively along with discussion groups, committee meetings, panel presentations, and surveys. Texas, for example, combined a wide range of techniques for assessing citizen thinking. Fact-finding committees prepared questionnaires which were widely distributed. Youth's needs were elicited by public opinion polls through 625 newspapers, the Future Farmers of America, and the State pharmaceutical society, which caught the drugstore crowd. Sixty-two percent of the replies identified lack of adequate parental care and guidance, including spiritual training, as the great problem. The second highest item—9 percent—was lack of educational opportunities. Because of these returns, a marketing research firm, as its contribution to the Governor's committee, conducted an opinion poll of the views of the general public on what constitutes "adequate parental care and guidance." Fourteen State youth organizations compiled a discussion guide, used by young people in 815 junior and senior high schools (651,000 students) during Youth Participation Week, and by 3,000 units of the State PTA.

The State 4-H and home demonstration clubs made a survey among rural youth. Statewide organizations sent in reports of activities and recom-

mendations. The material from all these sources flowed into the factfinding committees. A preliminary report, with recommendations, was drafted and presented to a Statewide Conference in December. This now becomes the basis of a State program for social action.

While most States used the county as the natural local unit for self-study, some, including California, Minnesota, and Nevada, used the town as the unit. Hundreds of town meetings were held, where opinion was freely expressed and registered as a basis for recommendations. Another self-study unit was the region or district encompassing many counties, as used in Arizona, Louisiana, and Michigan. Whatever the unit, intensive surveys were made, and conferences held to discuss and vote upon reports and recommendations.

Alaska is so spread out and thinly populated that meetings of any appreciable number of persons are virtually impossible. So the State committee used the United States mail and wrote to the mayor of every city, town, and village, many with population of less than a hundred. The responses form the body of the Alaska report, which also includes a review of the characteristics of this new State.

Youth Participation

From the beginning the President's National Committee for the White House Conference on Children and Youth and the National Council of State Committees stressed the importance of fully involving youth in all stages of the Conference. While many State committees were somewhat uncertain about how to achieve this, they found answers from young people themselves. Youth participation committees were formed which worked with the adult groups. They developed, distributed, and processed questionnaires which provided media for thousands of teenagers to indicate what they consider youth's problems today and what to do about them. Local, regional, and State youth meetings provided an opportunity for free discussion.

A 2-day State meeting was held in New York State with 150 high school delegates discussing youth's problems in six workshops moderated by adults. Their recommendations were fused into the State report, and the young delegates followed through by reporting the conference findings at hometown meetings. In Oklahoma, 1,200 students from 169 high schools held a two-day workshop to prepare a statement of needs which was sent back to their schools for discussion and amendments before inclusion in

the State report. In Oregon young people took over the house of representatives for one day to discuss youth's problems, relegating the few adults present to the spectators' galleries. At many conferences to consider the State reports, young people led discussion groups and served as panel members, as in Utah, where a youth panel was televised. One half of the delegates at the North Dakota State conference were young people. Youth delegations from Illinois, Minnesota, and Wisconsin met together in October and developed recommendations on orientation for youth participants at the Washington sessions of the Conference and for postconference follow-up action.

The governors of several States gave official recognition to youth participation in preparation for the White House Conference. For example, in Indiana the Governor proclaimed a Youth Day, and in Texas and Utah the Governors proclaimed a Youth Participation Week.

HIGHLIGHTS FROM THE REPORTS

In many ways the reports reflect the general prosperity of the 1950's. There is almost no mention of poverty, hunger, or evictions occurring, except where there is no adult male wage earner in the family. Unemployment, the black plague of 30 years ago, is not often referred to, except for the serious problems of some of the outlying villages in Alaska and of pocket populations stranded in Appalachian coal mining communities.

Basic income for essentials is reported as a major problem for many of the families in which the mother must be the sole provider. If she is an unskilled worker her wages are low, and direct or hidden costs are increased because of her absence from the home. If she remains at home to rear the children and receives public assistance, in most States the payments are considerably below budget standards for health and decency.

The close interrelationship of employment and family life is highlighted in the concern for working mothers. The majority of State reports reflect a feeling that mothers should not work, if possible. A minority takes another approach, accepting the fact that mothers do work and stressing the importance of measures to protect their children while they are out of the home.

For teenagers, on the other hand, the reports universally express a need for part-time and summer

employment opportunities regardless of family income.

But they also reflect an important area of controversy in whether or not to change the child labor laws to expand work opportunities and to permit young people who drop out of school to choose from a broader range of jobs. Some State reports advocate modification of such laws as a delinquency prevention measure. Other State reports (e.g., from Maine, Wyoming) insist that there is no relation between child labor laws and delinquency. South Carolina wants to strengthen such laws, and places upon the family and the community the responsibility of providing opportunities for adolescents to learn how to work through home chores, after school jobs, and summer employment.

Practically all the State reports stress the fact that the level of training required for jobs is steadily rising, while fewer and fewer jobs are open to unskilled workers. Many express concern for the future of today's farm youth, as the mechanization of farming decreases the need for people on the land. All the States uniformly deplore the lack of sufficient vocational guidance services.

Family Life

The reports are divided between optimism and anxiety as to whether anything good is happening to family life in America. Some reports suggest that the divorce trend is downward; others find it going up. They all make note of early sexual relationships and are worried about both marriages and illegitimate births among teenagers. They indicate an anxious feeling on the part of parents that "we ought to take hold but how do we do it without beating them?" Young people of high school age especially are asking that parents take a firm line and stick to it.

The reports reflect a general feeling—on the part of teenagers as well as adults—that parents should "maximize" the time they spend with their children. They suggest not only that too many mothers are working, but also that some mothers spend too much time on other activities outside the home. Some reflect a feeling that fathers are not spending enough time with their children. Family recreation is called for in many reports.

All the State reports call for family life education, but they mean different things by it—sometimes sex education, sometimes the inculcation of values, sometimes general preparation for marriage through instruction in homemaking, the manage-

ment of finances and the like. Some want it taught by the schools, some by other community organizations. One State report questions whether family life education does any good, but another—from Illinois, where there are extensive family life education programs—expresses the opinion that parents are showing more confidence as a result.

Values and Religion

Nearly all reports reflect unrest and concern about the kinds of values the adults in our society seem to be inculcating in children. This is paralleled by an uncertainty as to approaches which might shift values from the heavily materialistic toward the less tangible, more intrinsic ideals expressed through terms such as brotherly love, honesty, excellence, self-discipline, recognition of the worth of every individual.

The Ohio report says: "Children need to develop a set of ethical and moral values which will enable them to live in the community with relative stability, purpose, and sense of personal satisfaction . . ." And a youth report: "Spiritual and moral values should be fed to small children and teen-agers just as food is fed, because it is with these tools that they meet other social problems that need solution."

Responsibility for the process of "idealizing our values and strengthening guideposts for our children" is variously assigned to parents (most frequently), the churches, the schools, and the communications media, especially TV.

Two Eskimo children in Alaska. So far apart are the settlements of this largest of the States that much of the activity to prepare for the Conference had to be carried on by mail.



Although the reports are generally hopeful, a growing materialism is mentioned by many with real foreboding. They seem to be saying with Walt Whitman: "It is as if we were somehow being endowed with a vast and thoroughly appointed body, and then left with little or no soul."

Most State reports contain some reference to organized religion, though only a score of them devote a full subcommittee report or section to the role of churches and synagogues in the lives of children and youth. They comment on: (1) a pouring out of money for religious edifices and equipment in the past decade; (2) increasing attendance and activities; and (3) a greater emphasis on religious instruction and less on social activities. Finally, they reflect a sense of uncertainty concerning the role of organized religion in this changing world: How can the spiritual and the secular be reconciled? Young people are confused, they say, by discrepancies in what they hear and what they see.

Minorities

The Supreme Court decision of 1954 is central to the discussion of problems of minority groups in a number of the State reports. However, fewer than 30 deal with these problems at all: several Southern State reports do not—although Alabama's does, and a committee of Negroes in Georgia submitted a separate report; some Northern States with large minority populations faced with many problems, such as Illinois and Pennsylvania, also do not discuss problems of minorities in their reports.

Some reports, such as Kentucky's and Oklahoma's, list gains in desegregation in the schools in the last decade. On the other hand, South Carolina reports the repeal of compulsory school attendance laws.

Report after report comments on the increasing urbanization of minority groups, and on population migrations from south to north, from country to city, from Puerto Rico to the mainland, and to a lesser extent from Indian reservations to the cities.

Some reports show a consciousness of the need for fresh approaches to problems of minorities; one trend is the organization of human relations commissions to deal with racial tensions. Citizen groups are also reported as organizing on a neighborhood basis to retain community standards and values, to prevent panic selling of homes when new groups begin moving in, to help newcomers adjust to the community. Youth groups show not merely willingness but a real earnestness in seeking solutions.

From the point of view of sheer quantity, the re-

ports contain more about American Indians than about any other minority group. The Montana Committee devoted over a third of its report to Indians. This seems to reflect an increasing awareness of State responsibility for extending Indians the same privileges as other citizens and for helping them to become part of the life around them. That Indian tribal councils are assuming broader leadership too is evidenced by their cooperation in New Mexico and Utah with the State White House Conference committees.

Juvenile Delinquency

Most of the State reports include some mention of juvenile delinquency with recommendations for strengthening services for its prevention and treatment. Many discuss it under the heading of broader social disturbances and stress the importance of prevention through expanded programs of recreation, vocational training, child welfare, employment, family life and parent education, and mental health.

The recurrent theme is the urgency of the need for development of preventive and treatment services not now in existence, and for expansion and improvement of inadequate existing services. (Sixteen States report that sometimes children are held in jails regardless of age, sex, or legal restrictions.) Also emphasized is the companion need for more and better coordination of services, both State and local.

The magnitude of the need for services and facilities is indicated by the reiterated references to shortages in trained personnel, funds, and physical facilities in all of the State reports, irrespective of the size of the State, its geographical location, its extent of urbanization, the size of its juvenile delinquency problem, or the degree of development of State and local programs. The reports make clear that even the States that document the need for new and creative approaches and more research, as some do, have not been able to use to maximum advantage already existing knowledge and techniques because of insufficient funds, trained personnel, and facilities for detention, diagnosis, treatment, and aftercare.

Education

The crisis in education is brought up in all the reports: serious shortages in trained teachers, classrooms, and up-to-date equipment, accentuated by a marked population bulge in school-age children. Citizens are asking on the one hand for a stronger academic curriculum, including more foreign lan-

guage (beginning earlier); more and better science, more challenging courses for the gifted, a general pursuit of excellence. On the other hand, they are asking the public schools to provide driver education; vocational training; career counseling; education in the dangers of alcohol, tobacco, and narcotics; sex education; and, especially, preparation for marriage. They want the schools to be responsible for the early identification of children out of the norm—be they gifted, retarded, disturbed, potential delinquents, hard of hearing, or visually handicapped. They also want the schools to provide special classes and specially trained teachers for children who, for whatever reason, cannot easily be taught in the regular classrooms.

The question is how to provide all this, including the additional classrooms needed. The reports include many financial proposals, which seem to boil down to reassessment of local land values, broadening of the tax base, and increased Federal and State participation. Oklahoma, for example, concludes: "Since education is of national concern and there is an inequality in the ability of States to adequately finance education, participation of the Federal Government with the States and school districts is recommended in the financing of public education with only auditing controls of Federal funds by the Federal Government."

Children in Special Need

The overall impression emerging from the reports is that welfare machinery is good but there is a woeful lack of staff and money. In general, all States have something of everything in facilities and services, but the coverage is spotty and inadequate especially in the rural areas, while in the urban areas welfare agencies have not been able to keep up with the needs of growing and shifting populations.

Grants in the Aid to Dependent Children program are still too low—a universal complaint. The reports note some improvement in foster home care—in selection and supervision. Nearly all recommend extension of day care facilities. Some also mention the need for improved licensing standards for both day care and full-time care facilities. Fewer than might be expected express a need for homemaker services. On the other hand the reports indicate a growing awareness of the needs of unmarried mothers as well as improvement in services for them. Institutional care is reported as needed for children with special problems—particularly the severely retarded and the emotionally disturbed.

Practically all the States report a serious shortage both of trained personnel to work with disturbed or handicapped children and of facilities for training personnel. The personnel shortage is aggravated by the fact that trained workers tend to cluster in urban areas and near training centers. This leaves large rural areas badly underserved. Parents and children often have to travel 50 to 500 miles for diagnosis and treatment.

The reports cite a need not only for more clinics for disturbed children but also and especially for residential treatment centers. These are, however, so expensive to build, staff, and maintain—the cost of caring for one disturbed child in such a center may run as high as \$800 to \$1,000 a month—that the States are hard put to figure out an answer.

Perhaps because of both the expense of caring for disturbed children and increased understanding of mental illness, the reports emphasize the importance of preventing mental illness. They show a trend toward providing mental health services in the schools. A number of State laws requiring or permitting school systems to employ psychologists and social workers who can spot problems of emotional disturbance in children in the early stages and provide appropriate guidance to them, their parents, and their teachers.

The States report a need for more of everything to cope with the problem of mental retardation. They ask for more research, looking toward both prevention and service. They call for more diagnostic facilities to aid in early recognition of retardation; more trained personnel; more special facilities for educable retardates; more facilities for vocational training; more, better, and different types of institutions—such as halfway houses and cottage-type institutions for the moderately retarded who need supervision and a protected environment but not constant help and attention; more planning and coordination of programs; more public information about what facilities are available; more counseling for parents as to available facilities, how to deal with a retarded child in the home, and how to deal with their own emotional problems.

Health and Health Services

The reports show that there is still a shortage of medical care in the United States: in the Plains States and the Southwestern States and in rural areas generally. In Arizona, for instance, pediatric facilities are practically nonexistent in many counties. Infant mortality is still serious in rural areas,

especially in the Southwest. Most of the reports mention the need for more studies of perinatal mortality. Some mention a slight increase in venereal disease among teenagers.

Most of the reports comment on the need for expanding and improving school health services. A great deal of concern is expressed over accidents, especially motor vehicle accidents, as a cause of death and injury among children, particularly adolescents.

In few States do more than three-quarters of the counties have good local health departments. One report—Indiana's—raises the question of whether the classic local health unit—county, multicounty, or city-county—is appropriate in view of present personnel and financial difficulties, or whether some other kind of administrative unit might not be more effective.

The reports suggest the need to increase public awareness of the health facilities and services which are available and to get people to use them, especially for prenatal and infant care. For example, Minnesota reports that only 38 percent of children under 4 have been vaccinated against polio, and this is not unusual.

The reports reflect a considerable interest in dental care, both preventive and remedial. They indicate that remedial care is still unavailable for many children, and not enough dentists are being turned out yearly. The Virgin Islands reports "a shortage of dental supplies, and the dentist often extracts permanent teeth without attempting to fill or otherwise save them." The reports generally recommend fluoridation of community water supplies, and since small communities often cannot afford this measure, a number of them call for Federal and State aid for this.

Many reports express concern over the health hazards of childbearing among teen-age girls who marry before they are even physically fully matured. Many State committees also express concern over the poor nutrition habits of teenagers, especially girls, and over the effects of their poor nutrition on their future children.

The Use of Leisure

Most of the reports underscore the importance of recreation and leisure-time programs. Georgia, for

instance, considers the provision of constructive opportunities for the use of leisure time as the number one problem. Many reports indicate an increased interest in county planning for recreation because small rural communities cannot afford separate recreation systems. One Western State reports 2,000 square miles without park or playground facilities. New Hampshire, although a playground for winter sports enthusiasts the Nation over, reports a shortage of winter play facilities for its own young people. Many States report an overloading of recreational facilities in the cities because of populations expanded through in-migration; at the same time some resources are not being fully used because newcomers do not know where or what they are. Thus the reports also stress the need for distributing more and better informational materials about recreational needs and opportunities.

North Carolina, Rhode Island, and Indiana report efforts to prevent the sale of obscene literature to anyone under 18. Nearly all the reports deplore the fact that television does not meet its potential as a recreational and educational medium for children. However, Alabama reports 3 State-owned TV channels with programs of an educational and cultural nature.

Interrelated Program Planning

The crying need, highlighted in all the State reports, is the coordination of effort between all agencies, public and private, in all aspects of programs affecting children and youth. At the same time the reports contain innumerable illustrations of cooperative activities. The Governors' committees for the White House Conference with cross-sectional state-wide representation are the epitome of just such coordination.

The experience of working together to assess the achievements and the remaining unmet needs in all areas of child life has been so rewarding to the participants that practically every report recommends a coordinating committee on a continuing basis. In most States followup planning is far advanced for the implementation of their own recommendations and those of the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth soon to come.

TODAY'S CHILDREN AND YOUTH

II. As Seen by National Organizations

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ABOUT 550 national voluntary organizations are participating in the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. Roughly one-third of the total represent churches, synagogues, and organizations related to them; about one-eighth relate to health; one-eighth to education; the remainder spread across many fields of activity affecting children and youth, such as recreation, correction, human relations, labor, community organization. Some are devoted to research in special subjects important to the growth of children, others concentrate on the promotion of social legislation, or on participation by children and youth in community and international programs.

Whatever the focus, the pattern of voluntary organization on the basis of interest and conviction is obviously an essential aspect of the American style. In what other way could the views of important parts of our society find effective expression? Political channels are too narrow to carry the flood. Nevertheless, in every area of child life and youth experience the efforts of voluntary organizations have little long-range vitality unless they have found or can create firm points of reference, interest, and support within the fabric of government, including constitutional guarantees, both State and Federal. Conversely, the efforts of government may wither on the statute books unless they arouse a positive response among interested citizen groups in the field dealt with.

The White House Conferences throughout their history have afforded good examples of the union of governmental and nongovernmental forces, with a strong infusion of the opinions of nonprofessional citizens and, in the 1950 and 1960 Conferences, of youth itself.

Over 100 of the national organizations taking part in the current Conference have reported on their aims and programs. The aim of this article is to present a brief account of some of the main achievements, difficulties, and hopes expressed by the reporting organizations.

The Use of Resources

The reports show considerable concern about the use of resources: money, manpower and woman-power, materials, and facilities. These are all inter-related, and all are sources of concern to voluntary organizations. They make it clear that more money will need to be spent from public and private funds for all sorts of things—education, recreation, housing, trained leadership, research. But they also show that money will not do it all; the motivation of professional and volunteer workers and their training and status are important too. Some organizations look to retired personnel for help in relieving shortages; some seek it in the education of more young people for professional or nonprofessional roles in directing the activities of children and other youth. Coordination and cooperation among organizations themselves, and in relation to government, are important elements in conserving resources. Progress is reported in this respect by leading professional organizations and by those concerned with identifying needs and aligning facilities and staff, both professional and volunteer, to meet them. The reports make clear that still further progress is required to meet the challenges of our changing communities.

As to facilities, the reports emphasize, in addition to the well-publicized lack of schoolrooms, the need for more action to supply the kind of environment



Two first graders. How to increase the quality of educational opportunities for these and other children concerns a number of national organizations reporting to the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth.

conducive to child welfare and health and to a creative life for children and youth. This last point is stated as an urgent matter in the crowded metropolitan regions. Though remote areas do not suffer from pressure of population, it is acknowledged that they too have problems of inadequate services and facilities.

The Family

The reports reflect a renewed focus of interest on family life on the part of many organizations. One of the reasons for this may be found in the numbers of broken or unstable families that have come to their attention. Other reasons may be that general institutions and organizations in religion, education, medicine, and welfare find that the performance of their roles depends on parental understanding and cooperation. The reports bear testimony to the fact that where families exist with one parent or none, or where both parents are out of the home for a large portion of the day, the community institution has many duties thrust upon it. But when families are whole and in reasonably good condition, the established impersonal forces find that religion, knowledge, manners, health, and many other elements of positive good do not flower without cultivation in and by the family.

Thus the reports show signs that organizations in basic fields of work with children and youth are in a way talking back to American parents. They are saying in effect that developing the full potential of children and youth depends on the families that created them or have taken responsibility for them.

On the other hand, many of the organizations seem to be telling themselves that if the family institution retains such basic importance, then there must be increased emphasis on educating youth and young men and women in the breadth and depth of responsibility belonging to marriage and parenthood and in forming realistic expectations of what family life can mean to them. They show alertness to the divisive forces at work, besides faulty personal attitudes, such as different employment schedules of both father and mother, and different social schedules of parents and children. But they do not contemplate or foresee a change in these conditions. Rather they seek ways to support and enrich the life of our most rugged and fundamental institution, the family. This support comes in various forms, such as the further development of day care for children of working mothers and the expansion of family counseling services.

Religious Faith

In their reports many organizations show a common-sense realization of their own and society's limitations and frustrations, and of the doubts and dangers inherent in a period of conflict and innovation. But they also express a preoccupation with perfection—attributable in part no doubt to a rationalist tradition in social and scientific theory, but also a great deal to religious conviction and idealism. Such conviction is reflected not only in reports on the direct operations of church and synagogue but also in those on other social undertakings strongly influenced by religious thought, aspiration, and example.

The same kind of motivation that has led church and synagogue into many fields of social enterprise and action—camping, recreation, hospital work, health education, and others—has stimulated the founders and the succeeding directors of youth organizations and other community organizations of different types. The reports show that much work for and with children and youth, and many organizations and programs involving them, are as strongly influenced as ever by religious idealism and the sense of worship, and that this influence promises to remain strong in our society for years to come.

The reports bear testimony to the fact that in re-

cent years many churches and synagogues through official announcements and planned social activity have championed the dignity of the individual both in regard to civil rights and social opportunities. They also show that religious organizations have taken various positions on how religious instruction should be given and on who should pay for it outside the family circle. They make clear that, however this question may be resolved, there is no doubt that religious considerations will continue to influence the secular learning of children and youth, as well as their moral and spiritual insight.

Education

Reports from the professional educational organizations, as well as others, reflect the intensity with which the education of children and youth has been debated throughout the past decade. This debate was accelerated by the 1954 decision of the Supreme Court outlawing racial segregation, and by the scientific achievement of the U.S.S.R. signalized by the launching of Sputnik. Complicating factors in the discussion reflected in these reports were: rising costs, increased numbers of youth in schools and colleges, and limitations on facilities and on the number of qualified teachers at all levels.

Some of the major criticisms of education reported are that we have not identified gifted young people early enough, that we have overlooked many of them; that general education in basic fields of scientific learning has not been rigorous enough; that we teach an inadequate number of foreign languages, in the wrong way; and that schools, especially public schools, spend time and money on subjects that, whatever their importance otherwise, should not be important in the curriculum.

But the reports also indicate that the sharpened discussion of educational issues has had good results, not only in heightened public awareness of their importance but in renewed attention to improved opportunities for student progress in mathematics, science, and languages. They indicate that an increased effort is being made to identify and to assist gifted youth in their education, by action of private organizations and through the operation of the National Defense Education Act, although some reports question some provisions of the act.

At the same time they show an awareness that those persons responsible by law for the direction of teaching and learning, and those nonprofessionals who are responsible by election and conscience, will continue to face the question of balancing the con-

tent of teaching in relation to total needs demonstrated or expressed in our society. Democratic living, economic survival, health and safety, esthetic expression and appreciation, international relations are but a few of the general fields in which these reports demand that salient elements be translated into the curriculum. They are concerned with helping each child learn what society requires him to know for social and economic survival, and for a productive way of life. The reports show how organized education, on the theory that if education is for all, then it is for each, is attempting to apply itself to fulfilling the potentials of both extremes of the learning scale as well as of all individuals in between.

Various reports indicate improvement in the quality and status of teacher education, in recruiting for the profession, and in general educational opportunity through the continued consolidation of school districts. Progress is reported for some regions with respect to racial desegregation in the schools, along with the hope that local opinion will permit further resolution of this unsolved problem. Widely differing views are expressed in the degree to which public funds should be used in support of private institutions, especially those administered by religious bodies. In regard to the more general issue of increased support to education by the Federal Government, the weight of organizational argument in the reports favors such support.

Health and Safety

Reports indicate that the health, both physical and mental, of our children and youth is generally good, and the overall trend is favorable. However, it is reported that infant mortality, after declining for a long period, rose slightly in 1957 and 1958, the possible causes being now under study. Furthermore, the reports point to the need for new victories in such special fields as cancer research.

Also reported is a need for greater education and motivation of parents, children, and the whole community to reduce accidents among young people. Accidents kill more young children than any single disease, while in the older age group the rate is higher than from all other causes combined. Some organizations report that this older age group, which includes high school youth, college students, and young workers, has both nutritional and emotional problems, owing to changes in schedules of living and working and to the pressures to which they must adapt themselves. Continued health education is

planned in schools, colleges, industry, and community to improve this situation.

Another field of effort suggested for renewed concentration is in the prevention and control of venereal disease, especially among adolescents, among whom the incidence has increased, especially in large urban centers, during the last 5 years. Organizations report working with public authorities toward better family supervision and control, improved sex education, and more thorough reporting of cases by physicians.

In regard to children who have physical, mental, or emotional handicaps the organizations report that much progress has been made in the provision of therapy, and of special educational arrangements. Some progress, though not enough, is reported in achieving the acceptance for various types of employment of physically handicapped young people who are able to work.

The reports also reflect increased efforts to identify in children while they are very young any tendencies that might develop into serious mental, emotional, or psychological conditions. School authorities, community services, churches, families, and many interested professions are reported to be involved in a human conservation program which in its various aspects may be called mental health, therapeutic action, and social understanding; but the demands for help exceed the supply of practitioners and special treatment facilities. This is also reported as true of efforts for the mentally retarded.

Marked progress is reported to have occurred during the past decade in research and in improved professional and community organization to promote the well-being of children who are in any way handicapped. The organizations give promise of redoubled efforts to advance research, to train the trainable, to educate the educable, to employ the employable, to protect those who can offer nothing in return, and of continued efforts to help families accept, understand, and aid their own children who are retarded or defective.

Work and Leisure

The goals of personal and social freedom, of individual dignity, and of creative experience are clearly expressed in the reports of organizations which work with children of preschool and elementary school age. These goals become more confused in reports concerned with older youth, partly because of the variations in young people's personal growth and aims, partly because of the lack of clarity with which

adults' expectations of youth are sometimes stated, and partly because opportunities for vocational and avocational creative work experience are denied.

Labor laws protecting children are reported to have done their work well except for certain groups such as the children of agricultural migrants. But the reports also show that economic unemployment among adolescents is high and that lack of opportunity for constructive occupation in a general sense remains serious for school dropouts and for high school and college youth in vacations or outside of school hours. A great investment of effort is reported by schools, community organizations, and other groups to devise expedients that will be attractive to youth and will result in creative and useful occupation. On the other hand, some organizations emphasize the need to resist pressures toward early career commitment. Some suggest that the increase in the youth population will compel a revision in our methods of introducing young people to the work of the world, as well as in the values we place on the various ways of employing leisure time. The wellsprings of vitality, ambition, and ability among youth are seen as far from dry.

Personal and Social Development

As national organizations state their concerns, a large number of questions converge to form a single question as to how well our children develop into self-dependent persons who have a sense of social function, interrelation, and responsibility. Many organizations which influence the family—the school, the church and synagogue, and organized youth groups—indicate a fair measure of achievement. They express concern, however, over the degree to which further ways can be opened for young people to pay into the community such skills as they have attained, so that they may grow through concrete experience and feel that they have a personal stake not only in themselves but also in the fate of the Nation and the world.

Organizations in education, religion, and group-work occasionally indicate conflict or competition in programming for this purpose, thus indicating a need for better coordination. They also report that where adult leadership is interested and informed a great measure of constructive participation is attainable by children and youth in programs of community betterment, local service, international relief, and international relations; but that where such leadership is not in effect, younger citizens are often cut off from the possibility of creative social action.

Certain lines of social division are reported as inhibiting to social growth, including the mutual hostility between the adult world and young offenders against the law and social order. The reports contain no precise means for forestalling or curing juvenile delinquency, though many are concerned with combating conditions and states of mind that apparently result in antisocial behavior. Better guidance in home and school, better means of identifying predelinquents, more adequate assistance to juvenile courts, and better provision for parole and probation officers are some of the points of concentration.

Another social cleavage is reported in relationships between majority and minority groups. Improved living conditions and general status have been achieved by some members of the minority groups dealt with in the national reports—chiefly Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, and American Indians. But the reports reveal a great deal of unfinished social and economic business in regard to minorities. Some of the points where greater concentration of effort is reported as needed are in relation to housing, employment, health and education, and direct communication between majority and minority groups. These points are seen as related to the development of higher standards of interpersonal and intergroup relations in general, an objective reported by many groups active in organized education, religious life, and community relations.

Difficulties are reported by organizations of many types in helping children and youth to achieve a sound sense of personal and social identity and responsibility in the face of social cleavages and changing social expectations. There is common agreement on the need for counteracting the adverse forces in the changing environment, so that human values can be reaffirmed and the sense of community created.

Some organizations report recent activities that show some progress in improving intercultural relations among youth, in willingness of adults to accept youth as civic partners, in research for adjusting youth programs more closely to youth needs, and in programs designed to increase international understanding.

Community agencies do not assume that a homogeneous society could or should exist in this country, but they have apparently been compelled to see that there are many cleavages in attitude derived from ethnic background, cultural heritage, and other factors existing in the adult society, which are perpetuated to a more or less intense degree in youthful

society. Today when more people live closer together than ever before, organizational leaders seem to realize that it is particularly important for religious, ethical, and practical reasons, to reinforce the sense of a common citizenship within a common humanity.

Aid to Families

The ultimate aim of many organizations is to help families and the younger generations to arrive at a point of economic and psychological self-dependence. The immediate aim often has to be one of amelioration, protection, or support for considerable numbers who cannot sustain themselves without help.

During the past decade many national organizations supported moves to increase and extend the insurance benefits available under the Federal old-age and survivors insurance program as well as the payments made to the needy under the federally aided State public assistance programs, especially aid to dependent children, and to extend the federally aided child welfare services. Many of these organizations now urge further extension of these programs, especially where children are concerned, on the grounds of the inadequate size of insurance benefits and assistance payments in relation to costs of living, the increasing need for services to families and children arising from the growing complexity of the social problems of our day, and the increases in child population. The aid to dependent children's program is especially singled out as in need of improvements, both in the amount of payments available to the families who must subsist through it and in the services available to them for strengthening family life and achieving self-dependence. In the

The major part of the May-June issue of CHILDREN will be devoted to reporting the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, to meet in Washington March 27 to April 2. The issue will include, among other features: a reporter's story of the Conference; a youth's-eye view by a youth participant who is a member of the executive committee; a summary of the major recommendations; and a report of followup plans by the chairman of the followup committee.

belief that the needs of the child should be the first consideration in these programs, a number of organizations expressly report their opposition to proposals to withhold aid from families containing illegitimate children.

The reports note the effect of State residence laws in inhibiting assistance to families in need and present three approaches to solving the problem: the modification of State laws and regulations; the formulation of interstate reciprocal compacts; and amendments to Federal laws regulating programs of Federal aid. By such reforms, organizations hope to see improvement not only in the provision of financial assistance and services to the financially needy, including agricultural migrants, but also in the extension of medical care and other needed services to unmarried mothers.

The reports especially express concern about "multiproblem" families and the need for breaking the cycle of dependence, involving such domestic and social disasters as desertion, delinquency, alcoholism, or mental illness. They report on community efforts to provide services to troubled families and children, to provide adequate foster care for children who need it, to expand opportunities for adoption, and to extend specialized institutional care for children with special needs.

A few organizations, particularly the legal and judiciary, report on adverse effects on parents and children resulting from the confusion among State divorce laws. They also point to a need for social work assistance to judges in relation to divorce cases. Others report the provision of counseling services, through local affiliates, directed toward helping parents who are in conflict and in advising parents of broken families on problems related to rearing their children.

Because of the large numbers of working mothers of young children, a number of organizations urged an increase in the provision of day care services through the coordination of public and private resources.

Individuals

Generally these reports leave the impression that mature citizens are amazed by the world that has developed around them. They seem disposed to believe that the changes they wish today's children to survive will be more rapid and more revolutionary than what they themselves have known. They do

not wish children to be steeped in a ruthless devotion to self, nor to be ironed out into flat servitude to the social machine. They desire for the next generations, as they have desired for themselves, all the freedom, dignity, and creative life obtainable.

These are high aims, holding important elements of religious, democratic, and intellectual aspiration. The aspiration can be transmitted more easily than the achievement, for that has to be reconstructed within each person and each generation.

Out of their own experience the leaders of national organizations have sketched some of the places where freedom, dignity, and the possibilities for creative living are in danger of erosion.

Their reports show that there is still too much want in a rich society; that many individuals need public and private assistance, that chronic dependence needs to be decreased if freedom and dignity are to be realized by everyone. They indicate that the new world may be hard for individuals, including those fixed within a day-by-day pattern of work that is careless of the individual fate, because of the technological demands of business, industry, government, and social organization. They show that to develop the very gifted, the moderately intelligent, and those who are less or least talented, and to see that each reaches a point of self-fulfillment is a serious task for the Nation.

For these reasons, these reports indicate, an unusual effort must be made to interest the individual in active and productive enterprises beyond the limits of his vocation, as well as helping him define his place in the complex patterns of our economy. This is more than a matter of playing fields and other facilities, important as these are; it is a matter of attachment to basic skills, social practices and needs, arts, and fields of knowledge so that the individual, and society through him, will know continual enrichment. The odds are considerable, but as these reports indicate, the prize for the individual is so great that many forces in our Nation are intent on winning the game for him. The prize is not "security" except in the sense of growth in self-knowledge and in just and humane relations. It is, rather, personal achievement of freedom, dignity, and a creative life.

We are at a point where we and our organizations must ask ourselves the question again, and many times over: Do we believe in the individual? Completely? Taking the Nation and the world as they are and will become, how do we deliver the goods?

MODIFYING SMOKING HABITS IN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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FIVE YEARS AGO the Public Health Cancer Association officially recognized that the time had come to initiate educational activities applying the scientific findings of the many studies which have revealed an association of smoking and lung cancer. The American Cancer Society can now report experiments in how to modify the smoking behavior of high school students.

During the interval the epidemiological problem changed from "Does smoking cause lung cancer?" to "What is the mechanism whereby cigarette smoking causes lung cancer?" And the educational problem changed from "Shall we tell them?" to "What shall we tell them?" and "How shall we tell them?"

In order to answer this last question we knew first that we needed more information about (1) the amount and pattern of smoking among school students, (2) the factors that distinguish smokers and nonsmokers in this group, (3) the motivations that are common in the taking up of smoking, and (4) the approaches that might be most effective in influencing smoking behavior.

A full description of the study we conducted to collect this information is given elsewhere.¹ The study has included the following aspects:

1. At the beginning of the school year a questionnaire on smoking habits and personal background, to be answered anonymously, was administered to all the high school students in the 11 public high schools and 5 Catholic parochial high schools in Portland, Oreg., and in 5 high schools in 2 counties outside the city limits but part of the urban area.

2. On the basis of this first questionnaire, 19 of the

21 schools were divided into 6 experimental groups ranging from 2 to 4 schools in number and matched as closely as possible for frequency of smoking among the students.

3. One of the six experimental groups served as a control, and no special educational activities in regard to smoking were undertaken in it during the course of the year that would not have taken place anyhow. The other five groups were approached three times during the course of the year with educational materials—pamphlets, flyers, and posters. Through these materials each group was subjected to a different approach. These were:

Contemporary: Emphasis on those aspects of smoking having current meaning to high school students.

Remote: Emphasis on the relationship of cigarette smoking to lung cancer, especially in later life. The contemporary and remote approaches were included to test which was the more effective as previous interviews with young people had shown that the more immediate effects of smoking are frequently reported as reasons for not smoking, while projective materials tended to show underlying concern with the remote effects.

Both-sided: Since some studies of communication indicate that messages dealing with both sides of a question may be more effective for the uncommitted than one-sided messages, this approach was designed to be somewhat permissive in regard to smoking.

Authoritative: Since smoking is sometimes an act of rebellion against authority, this was included to test the appeals to authority that are common in most health education messages.

Adult role-taking: Since smoking may be a symbol of being "grown up," this approach was designed to let the high school student reverse the usual parent-child roles and become the person who provides information on health (i.e., the lung cancer-smoking

Based on an address delivered at a session of the Public Health Cancer Association at the 1959 annual meeting of the American Public Health Association.

relationship) to the adults within the family circle.

4. Near the end of the school year the questionnaire was again administered to all the students of the same high schools. The first portion of the questionnaire on smoking habits was identical with that used 8 months earlier. Some changes were made in the second portion as a result of the findings of the first questionnaire.

What Makes a Smoker

Through this study we have identified three factors which distinguish high-smoking from low-smoking groups of students:

1. The most important, is whether or not the parents or older siblings smoke. What seems to matter is whether or not smoking is accepted by the family as a normal and expected form of behavior. When it is, smoking becomes to younger members of the family a part of growing up. This factor accounts for nearly half of the smoking among the students in our Portland survey.

2. We noticed a syndrome of intercorrelated factors that seem to have in common the failure to achieve peer-group status or satisfactions. Smoking is high among young people who have fallen behind their age equals in school, who do not participate in extracurricular activities, and who are taking the scholastically less demanding course of school work. This group—a minority in the school population—has not achieved satisfaction from its peer-group relationships, at least as defined this way. In this group smoking may be a compensatory form of behavior, symbolic of problems of emotional health that are more significant than the smoking itself, which is merely symptomatic. This factor accounts for about one-fourth of the smoking in the series.

3. We found that there was a higher proportion of smokers in the Catholic schools than in the public schools of Portland. Since Catholic parochial schools are reputed to have stricter discipline than most public schools, one possible hypothesis is that this high rate of smoking represents a rebellious reaction against restrictions. Unfortunately, we do not have the data to test this hypothesis.

However, a review of the parental attitudes toward smoking as reported by the students shows that roughly 10 percent of all high school smokers smoke despite parental prohibitions. More girls than boys do so, and there is somewhat more defiance of paternal than of maternal prohibitions.

Thus, the three broad factors involved in high school smoking can be considered as: (1) parental, family, or cultural; (2) peer-group or sociological; and (3) personal or psychological. These factors represent three different etiologies in the acquisition of the smoking habit. Is there any reason to believe that they would respond similarly to different approaches to presenting educational material on smoking? Is there any reason to believe that they would be equally amenable to change?

To measure the effect of the materials we calculated a "net recruitment rate"—the difference between the proportions of regular smokers at the beginning and at the end of the school year expressed as a percentage of the proportion of nonsmokers at the beginning of the year. For example, if 20 percent of a group were regular smokers at the beginning of the year and 28 percent by the end of the year, this increment of 8 percent among smokers expressed as a percentage of the 80 percent of nonsmokers at the beginning of the year gives a net recruitment rate of 8/80 or 10 percent—10 percent of the nonsmokers became smokers. While undoubtedly a few smokers became ex-smokers, this measure balances each ex-smoker against a new smoking recruit in calculating the net recruitment rate.

Effects of Educational Approaches

The most effective approach we found to a reduction of smoking was the one called "remote."

Among boys in the control group the net recruitment rate was 13 percent. Among those who received materials taking the "remote" approach the recruitment rate was 7.7 percent, a reduction of about two-fifths from the rate among the controls. This change was statistically significant around the 1 percent level. The "both-sided" material was the only other approach that produced results close to statistical significance. Among the boys who received this the net recruitment rate was slightly over 9 percent as compared to the 13 percent rate among the control group boys.

The other three approaches all gave results hovering around 11 percent—a reduction in each case well within sampling variability. Yet it is worthy of note that in every group receiving material, whatever the approach, the recruitments to smoking were at a lower rate than in the group which received none of the materials.

Among the girls in the control group the recruitment rate was 6.4 percent. Here both the "remote" and the "contemporary" approaches produced sta-

tistically significant results of approximately equal degree, with net recruitment rates around 2 percent, or a reduction by over two-thirds from the rate among the controls. Again the "both-sided" materials approached statistical significance, with a recruitment rate of 3.4 percent. The "adult role-taking" approach had the same recruitment rate as the controls, in other words, no effect, and the "authoritative" approach resulted in a rate somewhat higher—7.5 percent—than the rate among the controls, although this difference was not statistically significant.

It is interesting to note that among girls parental prohibition of smoking results in more smoking than does strong parental disapproval. Smoking despite parental prohibitions represents a larger proportion of female smoking than of male smoking. And a highly authoritative approach pushes the recruitment rate of girls slightly beyond that of the controls. These findings will interest all men who are interested in feminine psychology.

The Remote Approach

In summary, we found that the "remote" approach was most effective with both boys and girls. The "contemporary" approach was as effective with girls as the remote approach, but not with boys. The "both-sided" approach was fairly effective with both groups. At this point a review of all the material seemed imperative. What did the three pieces of material labeled "remote" have in common that distinguished them from the other material?

Essentially, they said: "You've heard a lot of arguments about smoking cigarettes, but we have something new to say. We have learned many facts that lead to the conclusion that the smoking of cigarettes can cause lung cancer. We had not known this. But now there isn't much doubt. Here is some of the evidence. . . . Think about it before you decide to smoke."

As such, the appeal is a logical one to the intelligence of our youth. I am happy to say that the young people responded. True, we have some who did not respond. So far the evidence is that this approach was most effective among those who smoked in emulation of their parents, and less so among those who smoked for the more emotionally tinged reasons of compensation or rebellion.

I have discussed these findings with a science writer, pointing out that one commonly considers that having long-term goals is a mark of maturity, having short-term goals a mark of immaturity. He

suggested that what we had found was that "these kids talk like children, but behave like grownups." Perhaps when we study adults in relation to smoking we shall find that they "talk like grownups, but behave like kids!"

The extent of the response to the remote approach, namely the reduction of the 8-month net recruitment rate from 13 percent to 7.7 percent in the boys and from 6.4 percent to 2.1 percent in the girls may seem small. Yet, carried on cumulatively for a period of 4 years it would mean that about 20 percent of our high school students who would otherwise become regular smokers by graduation time would not do so.

A dividend to these studies on teenage smoking is a bit of understanding that may provide a powerful tool to the modification of adult smoking behavior. Quite apart from the effects of smoking on the health of adults, the fact that parental smoking is an important factor in teenage smoking poses to each parent the question: "Do I want my children to smoke?" and "Does the fact that I smoke influence my children to smoke?"

Cancer control depends not only on learning more about the causes of cancer, but, perhaps even as important, learning more about why people behave the way they do.

On this basis, what recommendations can we make?

Recommendations

1. That new materials on smoking be prepared to tell the lung-cancer story. The contemporary effects of smoking are already well covered in health education textbooks.
2. That emphasis be placed on the fact that this is something new, something we now know that we did not know in the recent past.
3. That a touch of both-sidedness be added to flavor the pottage: the permissive recognition of the fact that smoking is a natural, normal piece of behavior, indulged in every day by perfectly nice people, who unfortunately began smoking cigarettes before the damage that could ensue was fully appreciated.

The American Cancer Society has already prepared a film strip with recorded narration along these lines, suitable for youth groups, and available from its local units or State divisions.

¹ Horn, Daniel; Courts, Frederick A.; Taylor, Robert M.; Solomon, Erwin S.: Cigarette smoking among high school students. *American Journal of Public Health*, November 1959.

*A summary of the recommendations
of the Advisory Council on
Child Welfare Services . . .*

A LOOK TO THE FUTURE IN CHILD WELFARE SERVICES

JOHN C. KIDNEIGH
Chairman, Advisory Council on Child Welfare Services

EARLY IN JANUARY the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Congress were presented with copies of a report containing recommendations which may have far reaching effects on child welfare services throughout the country. This was the report of the Advisory Council on Child Welfare Services appointed by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare early in 1959 in response to a direction from the Congress made at the time of the passage of the 1958 amendments to the Social Security Act. The Council was to advise the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Congress about child welfare services. It was composed of 12 persons, including representatives of public, voluntary, civic, religious, and professional welfare organizations and of the public, including persons with special knowledge, experience, or qualifications with respect to child welfare services.

During the course of its deliberations the Council, with the staff assistance from the Children's Bureau, gathered information from all of the State public welfare agencies in the country and from national voluntary child welfare agencies.

Prior to 1958, grants from the Federal Government to State governments for child welfare services were to be expended in rural areas and other areas of special need. The 1958 amendments authorized the use of Federal money for child welfare services in urban areas on the same basis as in rural areas. One of the questions which the Congress was considering at the time of making these amendments was: "Will the ex-

tension into urban as well as rural areas affect deleteriously the local voluntary child welfare agencies in this country?"

Apparently there was fear in some quarters that the extension of coverage to urban areas would have a negative effect upon the programs or financial support of voluntary agencies, which are located mainly in urban areas. After careful assessment of the facts, the Council came to the conclusion that there is no evidence to support the contention that the use of Federal funds in urban areas either has negatively affected or will negatively affect the child welfare programs of voluntary agencies.

The Council also came to the conclusion that some basic changes in Federal law are indicated if the child welfare services in this country are to keep abreast of increasing need arising from increasing population and other factors. It is the purpose of this article to report briefly the recommendations made in the Council's report to the Secretary and the Congress; to indicate briefly some of the reasoning in reaching those recommendations; and to make a comment concerning implications for the future, should the Congress decide to enact the recommendations into law.

The Council's recommendations can be roughly classified in three categories:

1. Seven substantive recommendations requiring changes in law. These, if followed, would up-date child welfare services in this country and revise the Federal role in connection therewith.

2. Seven recommendations dealing with the 1958 amendments. All of these aim to improve the present Federal legislation under which child welfare services are administered, but some of them will not be necessary if the recommendations in the first category are accepted by the Congress and enacted into law.

3. One recommendation urging the Congress to expand the personnel and financial resources of the Children's Bureau so that it can more adequately discharge its appropriate functions.

Substantive Recommendations

The recommendations in the first category, representing the most important substantive suggestions which the Council offers to the Congress, are:

I. A NEW DEFINITION OF CHILD WELFARE SERVICES

Since 1935 the definition of child welfare services in the Social Security Act was imbedded in the provision for Federal financial participation in State efforts for "the protection and care of homeless, dependent and neglected children, and children in danger of becoming delinquent." The Council regarded this definition of child welfare services as inadequate. After having considered various definitions it recommended to the Congress the following as most nearly meeting present and future needs:

Child welfare services are those social services that supplement, or substitute for, parental care and supervision for the purpose of: protecting and promoting the welfare of children and youth; preventing neglect, abuse and exploitation; helping overcome problems that result in dependency, neglect or delinquency; and, when needed, providing adequate care for children and youth away from their own homes, such care to be given in foster family homes, adoptive homes, child-caring institutions or other facilities.

This definition avoids labeling or categorizing children. It recognizes the need of every child for parental care, protection, and supervision, and emphasizes the need for services to achieve this for children. Its broadness provides greater latitude for the inclusion of services dealing with any social problems affecting the well-being of children. By including the words "other facilities" the definition does not limit the care of children outside their own homes to the type of facilities listed. Moreover, the phrase "helping overcome problems that result in dependency, neglect or delinquency" recognizes that programs of many State public welfare agencies include responsibility not just for the prevention of delinquency, but for the treatment of delinquent children as well.

ADVISORY COUNCIL ON CHILD WELFARE SERVICES

John C. Kidneigh, chairman; director, School of Social Work, University of Minnesota, and president, National Association of Social Workers.

William T. Coleman, attorney, Philadelphia.

Fred Delliquadri, at the time of appointment, director, Division of Children and Youth, Wisconsin Department of Public Welfare, now dean, New York School of Social Work, Columbia University.

Very Rev. Msgr. Raymond J. Gallagher, chairman, program committee, National Conference of Catholic Charities.

Maurice B. Hexter, executive vice president, Federation of Jewish Philanthropies, New York.

Margaret Hickey, public affairs editor, *Ladies' Home Journal*.

H. Harold Leavey, vice president and general counsel, California Western States Life Insurance Company, and president, Catholic Welfare Bureau of Sacramento.

Leonard W. Mayo, executive director, Association for the Aid of Crippled Children, New York.

Joseph H. Reid, executive director, Child Welfare League of America.

Thomas J. S. Waxter, director, Maryland State Department of Public Welfare.

Ellen B. Winston, commissioner, North Carolina Board of Public Welfare.

William G. Stratton, Governor of Illinois.
(Unable to attend the meetings of the Council.)

The adoption of this new definition of child welfare services would mean that State child welfare agencies could receive Federal help in offering a broader range of services for children, including the treatment and control of juvenile delinquency. The effect would be a better coordination of public services for children at every level of Government, with a properly staffed public welfare agency in each State playing a major role in meeting more adequately the needs of children throughout its particular State.

II. FEDERAL PARTICIPATION IN TOTAL COST OF CHILD WELFARE SERVICES

Up to the present time Federal grants-in-aid to State agencies have been used to assist in "establishing, extending, and strengthening" child welfare services in the States. The primary emphasis, therefore, have been on the stimulating effort rather than on paying part of the total cost of the child welfare program. While the Council recognizes that Federal funds so granted to the States and their subdivisions have made it possible for the States to do more than

they otherwise could, it believes that this system of Federal-State cooperation is inadequate for meeting recognized needs, and it proposes a basic revision of the Federal role in this system of Federal-State cooperation. It therefore recommends that:

The Federal Government pay part of the total cost of public child welfare services of each State and other cooperating jurisdictions through Federal grants-in-aid on a variable matching basis, with provision for an open-end appropriation, and with continuing encouragement to establishing, extending, and strengthening such services. The statutory provision for an open-end appropriation should be formulated in such way as to assure that there would be no decrease of a particular State's expenditure of State or local money for child welfare services as determined by the fiscal year 1960 or some other base year.

This recommendation proposes to change the Federal Government's role from that of being a grantor for projects which stimulate effort in the States to one of full partnership with the States in the basic support of child welfare programs throughout the country. This would bring the Federal Government into a role similar to the one it plays in its grant-in-aid program for public assistance. It would enable the States to develop, expand, and improve services to meet social problems of children and families, strengthen family life, and work toward the stability of the family and the community.

This recommendation is based on a recognition that child welfare services are an essential and a joint responsibility of the Federal Government and the States. It would greatly encourage the States to develop a comprehensive program involving total resources, public and voluntary. It would provide a basis for overall program standards, encourage the equalization of services to children between and within States, and enable the States as rapidly as possible to see that all necessary child welfare services were available and to expand these services to keep pace with the swelling child population, the complexity and tension of today's living, the mobility of our population, and the rise in juvenile problems.

This is, therefore, the most far-reaching recommendation made by the Council in its report. If accepted it would undoubtedly have a striking and salutary effect upon child welfare programs, both public and voluntary, throughout the country.

It is, however, the only recommendation which produced any dissent or qualification in the Council. One member, Monsignor Gallagher, qualified his assent to the recommendation with a written statement expressing the opinion that the growth of public welfare is due not only to "other agencies failing to meet normal increase of need," but also to the

breakdown of the family within American society. He proposed that if the Federal Government is to finance extended coverage of child welfare services it (1) accept an obligation to find and reveal the effects of social trends on family life and hence on child welfare, and (2) encourage the purchase of child care on a case-by-case basis by public agencies from voluntary agencies and institutions as the primary means of extending public welfare services.

The dissent came from another member of the Council, Mr. Leavey, who expressed disapproval of Federal grants-in-aid for ongoing programs as a form of Federal domination of the States and especially of open-ended appropriations as unsound fiscal policy. "There is no showing that the several States cannot finance all of the public child welfare projects they choose," he maintained.

In its report the Council approved the principle of purchase of service from voluntary agencies and institutions on a case-by-case basis wherever needed. Thus public agencies under this recommendation would have Federal support in purchasing, among other necessities, foster care for children from voluntary agencies meeting acceptable standards—a practice which would tend simultaneously to raise child welfare standards in voluntary agencies and improve child welfare programs carried on under public auspices.

III. CONDITIONS OF PLAN APPROVAL

Under present provisions of the Social Security Act, when Federal funds are granted to a State for child welfare services, the State is required to submit a plan, jointly developed by the State and Federal agency, for the use of such funds. The Council concluded that Federal legislation should include more specific requirements for the approval of State plans for child welfare services than this provision requires so that services will conform more fully to standards accepted in the child welfare field. It recommended that such plans:

- (a) be developed jointly by the State agency and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare; (b) provide for the administration by the State public welfare agency or the supervision of the administration of the plan by the State public welfare agency; (c) provide for such methods of administration, including maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis, as are necessary for the proper and efficient operation of the plan; (d) provide that the State public welfare agency will make such reports in such form and containing such information as the Secretary may from time to time require and comply with such provisions as he may find necessary to assure the correctness and verification of such reports; (e) provide for progress in coverage and in moving toward a comprehensive child welfare program; and (f) provide for consultation with other public and voluntary agencies and citizens.

The several kinds of plan-approval standards included are already widely accepted in the field as essential to the improvement of services. The provision for consultation "with other public and voluntary agencies and citizens" helps to give, among other advantages, a better guarantee that each of the several States in formulating its State plan will take a comprehensive view of the needs of children in their States and of the resources available.

IV. GRANTS FOR DEMONSTRATION AND RESEARCH PROJECTS IN CHILD WELFARE

Experience has shown that special projects to discover and develop new or improved methods or facilities or to evaluate them have proved to be effective ways of stimulating better services. Congress has recognized the importance of this principle in many fields of health and welfare. The Council believes that intensive study and experimentation are essential for progress in the child welfare field. It therefore recommended that:

Federal legislation provide for grants to research organizations, institutions of higher learning, and public and voluntary social agencies for demonstration and research projects in child welfare.

The enactment of this recommendation would give specific encouragement and incentive to experiments and research directed toward new or improved methods for child welfare programs as a whole. In addition it would encourage research into considerations of basic cause which should add to our body of knowledge and give direction for preventive programs.

V. GRANTS FOR TRAINING OF PERSONNEL IN CHILD WELFARE

The shortage of people qualified to work in and administer the child welfare programs of this country is acute and will become more so. It is widely recognized that in order to improve or expand professional service in the health and welfare field attention must be paid to the training facilities which produce the qualified professional personnel. The Council estimated that at the present time 3,000 additional public child welfare workers possessing professional social work training are needed to provide minimum coverage for the Nation and that 4,300 more will be required by 1970. It therefore recommended that:

Federal legislation provide grants for training personnel (a) to State departments of public welfare, which may be used for

scholarships to individuals; (b) to accredited schools of social work, which may be used for scholarships to individuals and for expanding and improving training resources for the child welfare field and (c) to public and voluntary social agencies to conduct training projects in child welfare of regional or national significance.

The expansion of educational facilities is essential to guarantee a constant stream of professionally educated personnel entering the child welfare field. Not only is there a great need for professional personnel, but also a need for houseparents, volunteers, and others in positions not requiring professional training. If this recommendation is enacted into law by the Congress, substantial progress can be made in recruiting and training all types of child welfare personnel. This should result in a greater supply of qualified people for both public and voluntary child welfare agencies.

VI. ADVISORY COUNCIL ON CHILD WELFARE SERVICES

One of the basic factors in the continued maintenance and development of child welfare services in this country is the work done by interested citizens in telling the public about the needs of children so that immediate and long-range goals may be better understood. In connection with nearly every proposal it discussed the Council recognized the need for a national group to give articulate support to the Children's Bureau, as the arm of the Federal Government concerned with children. It therefore recommended:

Federal legislation to provide for the creation of an Advisory Council on Child Welfare Services to the Children's Bureau, with its structure, function and membership authorized by the Congress; the Council to study and report to the Secretary on philosophy, broad policies and program concerning social services to children and youth, and to interpret to the public the social welfare needs of children.

Such a Council would not be involved in administrative responsibilities but would function primarily in the development of citizen interest and understanding of the changing needs and problems in child welfare services.

VII. PROVISION OF MEANS TO EXAMINE BASIC CAUSES OF FAMILY DISRUPTION

In much of its discussion the Council was concerned with making recommendations that would improve the services needed to deal with the problems of children. But it was also aware of the importance of a better understanding of the causes of children's problems. It found a need for a study looking toward an identification and understanding of the

causes of family disruption, the source of many of the problems with which child welfare services must deal. A deep conviction that the preventive aspects of child welfare must receive attention and support led the Council to formulate a recommendation which would authorize the Federal Government to play a significant role in child welfare research. This is:

(a) That the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare through the use of the Children's Bureau be charged to examine and look into the basic causes underlying those phenomena which result in problems to children and families, and (b) that Congress provide the necessary funds.

Regarding the 1958 Amendments

The Council's seven recommendations, dealing primarily with the 1958 amendments to the Social Security Act, were made in answer to a specific request from Congress for recommendations and advice in connection with "the effectuation of the provisions of part 3, title 5 of the Social Security Act as amended by the Social Security Amendments of 1958." Some of these recommendations were technical in nature. The seven may be summarized as follows:

1. That the amendment extending the use of Federal funds to urban as well as predominantly rural areas be retained.
2. That the formula for apportionment of funds for child welfare services as previously enacted be retained. The Council reports, however, that the present formula can have little meaning in actually extending Federal support to urban areas unless there is a substantial increase in the Federal appropriation.
3. That the amount authorized for child welfare services as well as the actual appropriation be substantially increased. The present law authorizes an appropriation of \$17,000,000 a year, but the Congress thus far has appropriated no more than \$13,000,000 for any one year.
4. That if legislation is not passed to enable the Federal Government to participate in the total costs of child welfare services as recommended in the first category of recommendations (Recommendation II),

a reexamination of the present matching requirements of the act be made with a view to appropriate legislative changes. The concept of "Federal share" referred to in the present law is inappropriate under the present provisions.

5. That the provisions of the present law for reallocation of unused funds should be continued with provision made for a greater use of administrative discretion.

6. That there be no change in the law concerning the return of runaway children.

7. That Guam should receive Federal funds for child welfare services in the same manner as the States.

The Children's Bureau

The Council's recommendation concerning expansion of the Children's Bureau grew out of its shock in finding that the Bureau has been seriously handicapped in doing its job because of the lack of sufficient staff. In recommending that the Congress "provide the financial means to enable the Children's Bureau to carry out its functions and duties," it points out that the need for additional personnel will become even more critical if the Council's recommendations are adopted.

The range of service which the Children's Bureau provides is of fundamental importance if there is to be adequate child welfare service in this country. Despite its outstanding record, the Bureau has not been able to do as many things as fully as it should in developing standards, producing publications, administering grants-in-aid, providing consultation services, conducting research, strengthening family life, encouraging community planning and organization, and providing leadership which is essential in the light of the child welfare problems faced by this country.

In addition to its recommendations and the reasoning behind them, the Council's report contains important background information and factual material. It is being published by the Congress and will be made available to interested persons.

THE PERVERSIVE SHORTAGE OF PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

ALEX ROSEN

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IN A HARD-HITTING, frank and disturbing book, "Mental Health Manpower Trends,"¹ George W. Albee calls attention to the critical shortage of professional manpower in the mental health field. On the basis of diligent research, he asserts that we face a crippling manpower crisis in the future unless a drastic remedy is found soon. And he makes it clear that this crisis, involving as it does the various helping professionals, will affect not only the mental health field but the wider fields of public health and social service, and in fact the country at large through the loss of the productive capacity of those who need the various professional services to help them reach or maintain their full potential.

Does this predicted crisis, then, threaten our national security? Does it mean that we as a nation have become too absorbed with material comforts for our own welfare?

The study analyzes the complex factors responsible for the pervasive shortage of highly trained personnel in the various professions: the population explosion; the deficiencies in our educational system, especially as they relate to the stimulation of bright young people to enter the professions; the low salaries in the professions as compared to other occupations; the prevalent lack of respect for intellectual achievement in the country at large.

In the mental health field specifically, the psychiatrists, psychologists, psychiatric nurses and psychiatric social workers are in very short supply. Albee quotes the psychiatrist Daniel Blain in presenting a succinct picture of what this means:

For lack of manpower, whole programs [in psychiatric services] lie in abeyance, clinical facilities are hopelessly overtaxed, and some are closed to new admissions. Waiting lists are static. Key positions, such as state commissionerships, superintendencies of mental hospitals, directorships of psychiatric clinics, and professorships, stand vacant for months and even

years. Research, crying out to be done, awaits the scientist to carry it out. Teaching and supervision, the key ingredients of programs which will vastly expand our human resources, are only sparsely available.²

Albee maintains that the sources of our difficulties in supplying adequately prepared manpower is to be found in the climate of public opinion—an anti-intellectual, antieducational and antiprofessional trend in our social and cultural values. Referring to Plato, who observed that man cultivates that which he values, he points out that our increasing absorption with the accumulation of consumer goods has been accompanied by devaluation of intellectual pursuits. This he finds reflected in the low repute in which teaching is held and the lack of a ground swell of support for education in a time of crisis.

Citing the prevalence of poor academic salaries, Albee questions whether our society regards the college professor, who prepares our various professionals, as of any real importance. For instance, in 1953, the professors in large State universities, with incomes of \$7,000, were earning less than railroad engineers; associate professors in these institutions, less than railroad firemen; assistant professors and instructors, 24 percent and 30 percent less than railroad conductors and switch tenders, respectively.

All the professions, including mental health, depend for their recruits on an increased number of able college graduates. Yet two-thirds of the qualified, intelligent American youth who have the capacity for college training do not go to college.³ How long can we continue to squander our material and personnel resources so wastefully?

The contrast to the Soviet Union is startling. According to a story in *Time* magazine of November 30, 1959, the high jinks and casualness which prevail on so many American college campuses is rare at

Moscow University. The Russian students know that the avenue to success and material awards as well as to public esteem and prestige is through their educational system. The Russian university professor is well paid and has much higher status than his counterpart in the United States.

Use of Personnel

The professional schools which prepare our psychologists, psychiatrists, psychiatric nurses, and social workers depend for their efficiency on the supply of well educated, qualified and motivated college graduates. The professional schools simply are not getting such students in great enough supply, and our wastefulness is compounding the shortage.

Those interested in work with children will be a little dismayed by the way some professional personnel are currently using their time. Albee observes that many professional workers, particularly psychiatrists and psychologists, spend a disproportionate amount of time with middle-aged well-paying neurotics rather than with disturbed children, who untreated will become the neurotics and psychotics of the future. At the same time, he points out, the boom in babies means increased need for more child psychiatrists, pediatric nurses, and school social workers.

The National Manpower Council has identified three ways of improving the supply of professional personnel: controls, exhortation, and the improvement of market incentives.⁴ The Soviet Union is able to use controls in the education and placement of its professional personnel. This method is an anathema to a democratic society with its belief in freedom of choice for the individual. The challenge facing our society is to find a way of inducing large numbers of capable young people to enter the sciences and the professions voluntarily. In a free society appeals to patriotism and civic pride can be only partially effective in reaching such a goal. They must be accompanied by improved market incentives such as money, status, creative satisfaction, and professional security.

Albee suggests that there are five ways of solving the manpower problem in the mental health field: (1) to train more personnel; (2) to redistribute existing personnel; (3) to change patterns of patient care so as to achieve a better utilization of available professional manpower; (4) to apply new and different methods of treatment; and (5) to carry on research to discover ways of preventing and curing mental disorders.

These suggestions are in harmony with the report of the National Manpower Council, which has emphasized that one of the major solutions to the personnel shortage is the more effective use of existing personnel.⁴

A key principle of the manpower utilization is: an expert seldom works alone. A lawyer has his clerks, a doctor his technicians, an engineer his assistants. How much the expert accomplishes is partly determined by his own ability and partly by the number and skill of his assistants and how he uses them.

Thus, the suggestion has been made, and Albee reiterates it, that one way of alleviating the shortage in the mental health field is to prepare individuals with somewhat less training than the fully qualified professional person to assume limited and routine responsibilities, especially in hospitals and clinics. This radical suggestion has met with a mixed reception, for some observers feel it may dilute the quality of the profession. However, all of the professions are wrestling with the problem of trying to define different levels of responsibilities for which different levels of educational preparation might be required.

A Basic Need

The mental health professions are new. Only recently in human history has society achieved enough material security to release persons from direct production to provide services to disturbed people. These new professions do not as yet have the status, prestige, and financial remuneration to attract enough able, educated young people.

Mental illness is one of the major sources of human incapacity and loss of manpower. It is disturbing not only from the point of view of a human being's happiness but also, in the context of our society's competition with the Soviet Union, as a threat to production of material goods, to the provision of needed social and health services, and thus to the national security. A complex, industrialized society cannot function without talented, able people in the sciences and the professions. No society can long endure that neglects its basic education, its teachers, its professors, and its professional personnel.

Unless there is a drastic breakthrough in the concern of the American people, the future looks dark indeed, not only for the mentally ill in our society but for all American citizens. To this reviewer it is the height of irony that a society which can navigate the heavens and conquer space does not have sufficiently strong motivation to provide the kind

of care for the mentally ill, and those threatened with mental illness, commensurate with its great wealth and new scientific knowledge.

¹ Albee, George W.: *Mental health manpower trends*. Monograph series no. 3, Commission on Mental Illness and Health. Basic Books, New York, 1959.

² Blain, D.: *Relief of shortages in mental health personnel*. Speech to Midwestern State Governments Conference, Chicago, April 29, 1958.

³ The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School: Second report to the President, July 1957. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1957.

⁴ National Manpower Council: *Womanpower*. Columbia University Press, New York, 1957.

BOOK NOTES

ORIGINS OF CRIME; a new evaluation of the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study. William McCord and Joan McCord, with Irving Kenneth Zola. Columbia University Press, New York. 1959. 219 pp. \$6.

This book reports on a reexamination of information collected two decades ago on more than 500 boys, half of whom had received counseling treatment in a 7-year research-oriented project to prevent delinquency and half of whom did not.

Ten years after the study closed the authors searched court records to find which boys in each group had been convicted of delinquency or crime. They then analyzed factors in the boys' lives in relation to their conviction.

Agreeing with an earlier evaluation of the project by Edwin Powers and Helen Witmer ("An Experiment in the Prevention of Delinquency," Columbia University Press, New York, 1951), the authors found that the counseling given did not prevent delinquency or criminality—"Neither in number of crimes committed nor in number of boys who became criminal did the 253 treated boys differ significantly from the 253 untreated boys." They found, however, that the younger boys and the few who received intensive rather than occasional counseling succeeded better in escaping delinquency than the others.

Neither intelligence, physical condition, nor social factors such as the neighborhood seemed to be strongly related to delinquency, the authors found, but home atmosphere was. Extreme tension in a quarrelsome and neglecting home was associated more frequently with delinquency than was a broken

home; boys from quarrelsome homes, with or without affection, turned to delinquency at a relatively early age. Few of the boys who turned out to be criminals came from cohesive homes. The most fundamental influence seemed to be the mother's personality.

LONGITUDINAL STUDIES OF CHILD PERSONALITY; abstracts with index. Alan A. Stone and Gloria Cochrane Onqué. Foreword by Milton J. E. Senn. Published for the Commonwealth Fund by Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass. 1959. 314 pp. \$5.

The nearly 300 studies described briefly in this collection are primarily concerned with social and emotional behavior in infants and children. Most of them were completed in the period between 1930 and 1955. Among the foci of their concern are breast feeding, enuresis, sense of self, affectionate behavior, maternal overprotection, emotional reactions of children and families to hospitalization and illness, vocational choices made by high school pupils, and delinquency. The abstracts are presented alphabetically by author's name.

MENTAL DEFICIENCY; the changing outlook. Ann M. Clarke and A. D. B. Clarke, editors. The Free Press, Glencoe, Ill. 1959. 513 pp. \$10.

With contributions from seven authors, this book, first published in England in 1958, reviews the literature on psychological and social aspects of mental deficiency, especially the books and articles published during the past

decade; explains relationships between theory and practice in helping the deficient; and suggests ways of solving practical problems in the field. Included are chapters on measurement of intelligence, the etiology of mental deficiency, individual differences in the mentally deficient, cerebral palsy, and adoption of children of mentally deficient parents.

CHILD WELFARE; principles and methods. Dorothy Zietz. John Wiley & Sons, New York. 1959. 384 pp. \$5.50.

Addressed to college students, this textbook, written by an associate professor of social welfare, traces the origins of community services for children from the English poor laws through developments in the United States in the succeeding centuries, emphasizing the period from the passage of the Social Security Act to 1957.

UNDERSTANDING MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN. Harriet E. Blodgett and Grace J. Warfield. Foreword by Evelyn D. Deno. Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York. 1959. 156 pp. \$1.35 (paper).

The authors, both staff members of the Sheltering Arms, a research-oriented school for the mentally retarded in Minneapolis, discuss the problems and characteristics of mentally retarded children in relation to possible content and techniques in programs for their education, training, and leisure time and for helping their parents learn how to handle them. Pointing out the differences in conditions causing mental retardation and their effects on children, the authors warn against "overorganization" with the reminder that "what is good for one child may not be good for another."

DECLARATION OF THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

as approved unanimously by the 14th General Assembly
of the United Nations, November 20, 1959

WHEREAS the peoples of the United Nations have, in the Charter, reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, and in the dignity and worth of the human person, and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

WHEREAS the United Nations has, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status,

WHEREAS the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth,

WHEREAS the need for such special safeguards has been stated in the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924, and recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the statutes of specialized agencies and international organizations concerned with the welfare of children,

WHEREAS mankind owes to the child the best it has to give,

NOW THEREFORE

The General Assembly proclaims this Declaration of the Rights of the Child to the end that he may have a happy childhood and enjoy for his own good and for the good of society the rights and freedoms herein set forth, and calls upon parents, upon men and women as individuals and upon voluntary organizations, local authorities and national governments to recognize and strive for the observance of these rights by legislative and other measures progressively taken in accordance with the following principles:

I. The child shall enjoy all the rights set forth in this Declaration. All children, without any exception whatsoever, shall be entitled to these rights, without distinction or discrimination

on account of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status, whether of himself or of his family.

II. The child shall enjoy special protection, and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. In the enactment of laws for this purpose the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration.

III. The child shall be entitled from his birth to a name and a nationality.

IV. The child shall enjoy the benefits of social security. He shall be entitled to grow and develop in health; to this end special care and protection shall be provided both to him and to his mother, including adequate prenatal and postnatal care. The child shall have the right to adequate nutrition, housing, recreation and medical services.

V. The child who is physically, mentally, or socially handicapped shall be given the special treatment, education and care required by his particular condition.

VI. The child, for the full and harmonious development of his personality, needs love and understanding. He shall, wherever possible, grow up in the care and under the responsibility of his parents, and in any case in an atmosphere of affection and of moral and material security; a child of tender years shall not, save in exceptional circumstances, be separated from his mother. Society and the public authorities shall have the duty to extend particular care to children without a family and those without adequate means of

support. Payment of state and other assistance towards the maintenance of children of large families is desirable.

VII. The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him on a basis of equal opportunity to develop his abilities, his individual judgment and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of society.

The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and upbringing; that responsibility lies in the first place with his parents.

The child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation, which should be directed to the same purposes as education; society and the public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of this right.

VIII. The child shall in all circumstances be among the first to receive protection and relief.

IX. The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty and exploitation. He shall not be the subject of traffic in any form.

The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age; he shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or education or interfere with his physical, mental or moral development.

X. The child shall be protected from practices which may foster racial, religious and any other form of discrimination. He shall be brought up in a spirit of understanding, tolerance, friendship among peoples, peace and universal brotherhood and in full consciousness that his energy and talents should be devoted to the service of his fellowmen.

HERE AND THERE

Council's Report on Public Assistance

"A hungry, ill-clothed child is as hungry and ill-clothed if he lives in an unbroken home as if he were orphaned or illegitimate." On that premise the Advisory Council on Public Assistance, appointed by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare early in 1959 at the direction of the 85th Congress, has recommended that the Social Security Act's provisions for aid to dependent children be broadened to include children in need whether or not their homes have been broken by the death, absence, or incapacity of a parent. "The primary criterion for financial assistance to a needy child should be need," observed the Council in a report submitted to the Secretary and the Congress on January 4, 1960.

The recommendation is one of 20 made as a result of a year of study, in accordance with the Congress' direction that a Council be established to review the status of the public assistance programs carried out by the States under the Social Security Act in relation to factors bearing on the amount and proportion of the Federal-State shares in the program. While most of the Council's recommendations deal with Federal-State methods of sharing the financial burden of assisting persons in need, they do so with a focus on finding ways of meeting unmet needs, improving assistance standards, and strengthening family life.

Uncounted numbers of financially needy families and individuals can get little or no help from public funds, the Council reported, partly because they do not come within the categories of the States' federally aided assistance programs—old-age assistance, aid to dependent children, aid to the blind, or aid to the permanently and totally disabled. For this reason the Council recommended that the Social Security Act be amended to make it possible to use Federal grants-in-aid to encourage the States to furnish financial assistance and other services to needy persons regardless of the cause of their need.

The Council further recommended that the States be given freedom of choice in determining whether: (a) to establish a single category for financially needy persons, eliminating the four categorical programs; (b) to continue those programs and add a new category of general assistance; (c) to retain one or more of the four categories of assistance, and consolidate the remaining groups of needy persons into a single general assistance category; or (d) to expand the existing federally aided programs to include additional needy persons.

Noting also that many financially needy persons are debarred from public aid by States which will not assist persons who have not lived in the State for a specified length of time, the Council recommended that Federal grants-in-aid for public assistance be available only for State programs imposing no residence requirements for eligibility.

The Council also recommended that the Federal Government take leadership in creating the understanding necessary to bring assistance payments to levels adequate for health and well-being, to stimulate the States to extend the scope and improve the quality of medical care for which assistance payments are made, and to encourage the States to see that "similar treatment is accorded to persons in similar circumstances, regardless of the particular form of public assistance involved." "Dependent children are the stepchildren of public assistance," the Council observed.

Maximum amounts of average assistance payments in which the Federal Government is allowed to participate for aid to dependent children should be raised to bear equitable relationship with the maximums allowable in the other categories of assistance, the Council recommended. It urged that any difference in Federal maximums for the categories be "reasonably related" to available knowledge about differences in living costs among the groups of people involved. Federal maximums for all the programs should be high enough, the Council maintained, "not

to hamper" State efforts to provide assistance at levels adequate for health and well-being and to meet rising living costs. It recommended that current maximums be raised.

In order to "improve administration, promote social rehabilitation, and help prevent dependency," the Council recommended that States increase the numbers and raise the qualifications of personnel administering public assistance, and that this be encouraged by increasing the Federal matching provisions for educational leave to cover the full cost. The Council also recommended that Federal funds be made available to graduate schools of social work for training persons "in such fields as strengthening family life and caring for the needs of the aged." In its report the Council referred to projects which have demonstrated that when persons receiving public assistance were helped with their personal problems—at least by workers carrying small caseloads—the workers' activities "paid off in terms of reducing assistance payments."

Pointing out that "people coming to the assistance agencies need more than money," the Council made a number of recommendations concerned with the strengthening of family life. One urged the Congress to appropriate funds, authorized under the 1956 amendments to the Social Security Act, for research and demonstration projects in this and other areas, including "the reduction and prevention of dependency." Another asked for the establishment of a National Institute, comparable to the National Institutes of Health, to conduct studies and demonstration projects in this direction. Still another urged the Federal Government to encourage States to involve public and voluntary agencies in undertaking such studies and developing coordinated programs for strengthening family life.

The Council also recommended moves to stimulate public interest and knowledge about the role of public welfare programs. "The more a community becomes part of a public welfare program, the better it will be," the report observes.

On the ground that improvements in social insurance would reduce the need for public assistance, the Council also recommended a number of measures that would extend coverage and increase benefits in the Old-Age, Sur-

vivors, and Disability Insurance program.

Other recommendations concerned fiscal and administrative operations of the public assistance program. The Council recommended that expenditures of the "open-end" method of appropriating funds be continued and that "for the present" the Federal share of total public assistance remain at the current level of 50 to 60 percent.

The Council went out of existence January 1, 1960, as required by the act establishing it. However, it recommended that the status of the public assistance programs be reviewed and reevaluated by an advisory committee at least once every 5 years and that the Social Security Act be amended to authorize establishment of such a council.

The Council was composed of 12 persons in addition to the chairman, the Commissioner of Social Security. They included representatives of employers, employees, persons concerned with the administration of financing of the program, other persons with special knowledge or experience, and the public. Three members submitted dissents to specific recommendations.

—William L. Mitchell
Chairman, Advisory Council on
Public Assistance

Pan American Child Congress

What are the countries in the Americas going to do about their expanding child populations—especially their abandoned, neglected, abused, and deprived children?

This was the pervasive question of the Eleventh Pan American Child Congress convened in Bogota, Colombia, in November 1959, and attended by about 200 representatives of 21 Republics in North, Central, and South America and the Caribbean islands.

"We are becoming countries with a greater proportion of children supported by a smaller proportion of employed adults." The statement was typical of many. Along with the effects of high birth rates, the Congress discussed the low levels of subsistence existing in many areas, the undermining of family ties by urbanization, the widespread inadequacy of family assistance and social service programs, and the low rate of elementary school attendance in some countries.

Many countries reported the movement of population from farms and mountains to cities, towns, and new industrial areas, and that this movement had weakened traditional family ties and ways of educating and caring for children. "The morals and strengths they had in the country seem to weaken when they come to the cities. . . ."

Twenty-six major resolutions were formulated by the Congress for consideration by the Inter-American Children's Institute of the Organization of American States. These included recommendations for better laws for protection of children; intensified study of causes and solutions relating to neglect and abandonment; more trained social workers to help families maintain their homes; improved school facilities and efforts to increase attendance; improved health measures for mothers and children; establishment of vital statistics and a census of living arrangements for children; and intercountry compacts for the care of minors who cross country borders or frontiers.

Delegates to the Congress represented many professions concerned with abandoned and dependent children in their respective countries. Social workers, lawyers, pediatricians, educators, laymen, administrators, and legislators were most heavily represented. Mrs. Katherine B. Oettinger, Chief of the Children's Bureau, was chairman of the United States delegation.

About one-half of the participating nations submitted reports on the current situations in regard to neglected children in their countries. The report of the United States discussed, health, education, welfare, and legal aspects of dependency and neglect, along with national and international cooperative relationships in behalf of dependent and neglected children. Two major facts were highlighted: (1) 3,750,000 children were receiving payments through the aid to dependent children, and old-age survivors insurance or veterans programs; and (2) in June 1958, 417,000 children were receiving services from public and voluntary child welfare agencies, of whom about 271,000 were living in foster family homes or institutions.

The first of these Pan American Congresses was convened in 1916 by the Inter-American Children's Institute. Over the years the congresses and the Institute have stimulated and promoted the development of child health, educa-

tion, and welfare programs throughout the hemisphere.

In expressing his concern for abandoned children, the Congress's host, Dr. Alberto Lleras Camargo, president of the Republic of Colombia, commented on the present "period of great social and economic change . . . with its loosening of family ties," and added, "perhaps the child reared in a primitive culture was better off in some ways than the child reared in our advanced cultures."

—Martin Gula

White House Conference

The Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth recently released a chart book, the first of seven publications to be issued by the Conference before its Washington sessions take place, March 27 to April 2, 1960. Entitled "Children in a Changing World," the publication presents 70 charts, with accompanying text, emphasizing facts and trends in the social scene which affect the welfare of children. It was prepared by the Inter-departmental Committee on Children and Youth with technical staff assistance from the Children's Bureau.

The charts and text are presented in four sections. The first highlights the increase in numbers of births and size of families in recent decades, the concentration of the child population in a few States, the high proportion of mothers of young children in the labor force, the increase in school attendance, the growth of suburban living, and other social trends.

Another section shows among other problems that juvenile delinquency and births out of wedlock are increasing, that health, welfare, and educational personnel shortages are serious, that mortality rates are considerably higher for nonwhite than for white infants, and that accidents and cancer have become the most common causes of childhood deaths.

The third section shows, among signs of progress, that one-teacher schools are rapidly disappearing; that the number of States with desegregated schools is rising; that the majority of children being adopted by nonrelatives are placed by social agencies; that maternal and child health and crippled children's services are increasing.

In the last section the charts project the trends in child population, school

enrollment, youth employment, and occupational opportunities 15 to 20 years ahead, while the text comments on the implications of these trends for the families and children of the future.

The chart book is available from the White House Conference, 330 Independence Avenue, Washington 25, D.C. (Price \$1.25.) It is part of the material being sent to all registered members of the Conference, the cost to be covered by the registration fee.

By the time this issue of **CHILDREN** comes out, the three volumes of background papers written for the Conference by selected authors will be off the press. Edited by Eli Ginzberg, chairman of the Conference's Committee on Studies, the volumes carry the overall title, "The Nation's Children."

Volume I, "The Family and Social Change," contains papers on the effects on American family life of population moves, demographic trends, cultural changes, general economic prosperity, urbanization, religious influences, and leisure time.

Volume II, "Development and Education," contains papers on the various factors in the development of personality—genetic, physiological, psychological, and societal.

Volume III, "Problems and Prospects," presents papers on such phenomena as juvenile delinquency and conflict between the generations and on the problems of specific groups—rural youth, Negro youth in the South, and Spanish speaking children. It also contains papers looking ahead to the future prospects and effects of voluntary and Government social services, the employment of women, and the social scene in general.

Orders for a paperback set of the volumes received by the White House Conference, 330 Independence Avenue before March 27 will be filled for \$6.

This set is being sent to all registered members of the conference as part of the material being paid for by the registration fee. A post-Conference cloth-bound edition to be published by the Columbia University Press will sell for \$13.50.

Birth Data

A certificate of birth data for any child under 18 who was born outside the United States, whether or not he is a United States citizen, can now be

obtained from the Immigration and Naturalization Service if the birth information is in the INS records. The certification form has space for the child's name, his date and place of birth, INS file number, and date and place of issuance of the certificate. This certificate may carry the child's legal name at the time the birth information was reported to INS or his legal name when the certification is requested. The certificate is not proof of United States citizenship.

Applications for the certification form (G-350) may be directed to any INS office. A fee of \$3 is charged. If the child is a United States citizen born abroad, whose birth information was reported to a United States consular office at or near the place of birth, a copy of the report may be obtained from the Passport Office, Department of State, Washington 25, D.C.

Personnel

A comprehensive survey of social welfare manpower in the United States, sponsored by the National Social Welfare Assembly, has been begun by the Department of Labor in cooperation with units of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The study is expected to permit assessment of current needs for social welfare personnel and of the progress made in strengthening social welfare manpower resources in the decade since 1950, when a somewhat similar survey was made.

The survey is planned to obtain the following information on social-welfare, including recreation, workers employed by public and voluntary agencies: age, sex, and marital status; education and experience; type of program in which engaged; position held; salary; and working conditions, including fringe benefits.

The survey will have two parts:

1. A sample survey of all persons in all types of social-work and recreation functions in voluntary and public agencies, to be carried out by the Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. In this part of the study questionnaires are being sent to all social-welfare, including recreation, workers in a nationwide sampling of counties.

2. An effort to secure complete coverage of public assistance, child welfare, and vocational rehabilitation workers, and medical and psychiatric social

workers in Federally aided programs in all the States. This part of the study will be carried out by State agencies in cooperation with four units of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare—the Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Public Assistance, the Public Health Service, and the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.

For the Handicapped

The Minnesota Department of Public Welfare has initiated a pilot project in four counties to make county welfare services more readily available to children attending crippled children's clinics. In each of these counties a welfare worker is assigned to serve as a resource person to the clinic. This worker interviews families and children regarded by the clinic's medical social worker as in need of any of the services offered by the county welfare department. In some instances, if the family has a number of social or emotional problems that interfere with the child's receiving maximum benefit from the clinic's health, medical, and rehabilitation services, the medical social worker arranges for a meeting between herself, the clinic nurse, the county welfare worker, and the parents to work out a joint plan for giving nursing and social casework services to the family.

As part of the project the county worker takes responsibility for explaining the programs, policies, and procedures of the county welfare department not only to the members of the families interviewed but also to other professional workers at the crippled children's clinic.

A set of common standards proposed for all types of specialized institutions for handicapped children has evolved in Iowa as the result of a year of work by a Standards Committee for Facilities Serving Physically, Mentally, and Emotionally Handicapped Children, a subcommittee of the State Board of Social Welfare's foster care committee. The subcommittee is composed of representatives of the professions of medicine, education, and social work, including educators, administrators, practitioners, and supporting laymen from the three fields.

In the beginning the subcommittee worked through three special committees concerned with mentally retarded,

physically handicapped, and emotionally disturbed children, respectively, with representatives of the State division of child welfare coordinating their work. As the separate standards were prepared in relation to each group, their similarities led to the development of a set of common standards which have been presented to institutional executives and board members in a series of meetings.

Among other provisions, the proposed standards include an upper age limit (70) for institutional personnel and a lower age limit (6) for the admission of young children, and stricter fire prevention regulations. Though the standards have not yet been officially adopted, as a result of these discussions the boards of a number of institutions are now engaged in an overall review of their programs, purposes, and goals.

Parent Education

The University of Minnesota's Institute of Child Development and Welfare has made a series of 20 tape recordings entitled "Growing Up in the World Today" for use by parent study groups. Each 15-minute recording discusses a specific aspect of child rearing and is accompanied by a study guide to help the group leader to plan and conduct discussion. The only charge to the user is for postage and the cost of a blank reel of tape. Titles in the series as well as complete information on obtaining the tapes are given in a leaflet, "Using Tape Recordings in Parent Education," which may be obtained by sending a self-addressed stamped envelope to the Parent Education Program, Institute of Child Development and Welfare, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minn.

The cries of very young babies from different causes have been recorded on tape by Dr. Samuel Karelitz and transferred to a phonograph record to help mothers and fathers recognize their babies' needs. The recording, for use in parent education groups, was made as part of a research study being carried out by Dr. Karelitz and others, in which vocal expressions of newborn and older babies are obtained at regular intervals from normal babies and from those with various abnormalities such as Mongolism, thyroid deficiency, and brain damage. In the course of the

study the investigators will correlate patterns of vocalization with tests of behavioral development and later with tests of intelligence.

Juvenile Delinquency

The Ford Foundation recently granted \$1,095,000 to the National Probation and Parole Association to continue its program for citizen action toward prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency and adult crime. The program was begun as a 5-year project in 1955 with a \$600,000 grant from the Foundation. (See *CHILDREN*, January-February 1955, page 35.) Up to now it has helped in the establishment and support in 8 States of statewide citizens' committees or councils which work with judges, bar associations, correctional administrators, and professional workers from the various disciplines in the correctional field in order to: (1) find out how the State deals with the offender from first contact to disposition and treatment; (2) recommend improvements, assigning each recommendation a priority; (3) inform the public of its findings; and (4) stimulate individuals and groups—public and voluntary—to work for the recommended improvements.

Among the goals toward which such committees have worked with eventual success have been: a legislative appropriation for operation of a parole system in a State previously without parole officers; the doubling of a State's probation staff; a project to demonstrate the effectiveness of model court and probation services; a State merit system for correctional personnel; a plan for a model statewide correctional and juvenile court system; the provision of State funds to strengthen local court and community services for delinquency prevention; the development of training institutes for judges.

The new grant will enable the NPPA to extend the program to additional States where citizen-action programs have been requested.

Another Ford Foundation grant recently made to the NPPA, of \$7,700, will support a study of the effect on children and young people of motion-picture and television programs depicting violence and crime. The association is planning to call together about 15

specialists in psychiatry, psychology, education, juvenile court law, probation, and law enforcement to consider the subject in the light of American and European studies on the relation between violence in entertainment programs and the actions of the young.

Dr. Peter Lejins, professor of sociology, University of Maryland, is directing the project as special consultant to the NPPA.

Methods and procedures in probation work will be studied by college seniors in the New York area in a course given during the second semester of the 1959-60 college year by the Probation Department of the Kings County (Brooklyn) Court. Students from 13 colleges and universities, selected by the heads of their sociology departments, will attend. Besides 15 lectures the course will include demonstrations of practice, use of probation reports, experience in group therapy for offenders under supervision, research projects, and fieldwork training.

Areas to be studied include: the place of probation in administering justice, the relation of courts to social welfare and other agencies, preparation of pre-sentence reports, sentencing procedures, principles of supervising probationers, techniques used in handling youthful offenders on probation, and the significance of psychological and psychiatric material as an aid to judges in sentencing and in supervision.

For Youth

The National Child Labor Committee recently formed a National Committee on Employment of Youth to develop public understanding of youth-employment problems, to encourage services that prepare young people for suitable and satisfying jobs, and to stimulate increased employment opportunities for young people under appropriate conditions. Upon request the new committee will help local communities to set up and coordinate programs to assist boys and girls to prepare for, obtain, and hold worthwhile jobs.

To bring the latest techniques and practical aids to Girl Scout leaders engaged in teaching music and dance, literature and drama, and arts and crafts, Girl Scouts of the U.S.A. is sending an arts caravan on a projected

3-year tour, to visit Scout councils in various parts of the country. Training sessions, which last 3 to 5 days, are held for persons working directly with girls and for those working primarily with adults. Three art educators, who staff the caravan, are traveling in a specially equipped station wagon carrying films and filmstrips, arts and crafts supplies, a sewing machine, books, records, and exhibit material. About 13,000 persons are expected to attend the sessions.

Most young people in a high income county spend time in passive recreation, but prefer more active sports, according to the findings of a survey among high school students planned and carried out by a group of high school seniors. Designed by the youth members of the Montgomery County

(Md.) Youth Commission, with consultation from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the survey was taken among groups of 10th, 11th, and 12th grade students in all six high schools of the county. While television, movies, music, and "drug store" (in that order) ranked first among the activities most frequently noted as participated in by the respondents, these forms of recreation were near the bottom among the "preferences" noted, with swimming, roller skating, tennis, and teen clubs taking top places.

Among other findings, the survey showed that the young people average about 13 hours a week on hobbies, that 40 percent work outside school hours (most of them for spending money), that most of them talk over their career and personal problems with their par-

ents, that they are for the most part satisfied with their family relations. However, 18 percent of the down-country (Washington suburban) youth and 15 percent of the small-town and rural youth reported that they had no one to whom they felt free to turn with personal problems.

About 40 percent of the young people reported they were active in church-sponsored activities, but only 20 percent reported participation in community-sponsored activities. More than half the respondents said they expected to attend college.

While about half the young people reported that they seldom had physical checkups, 92 percent maintained that they nearly always felt well.

Findings of the poll have been published in a report entitled "The Needs of Youth, As Youth Sees Them."

READERS' EXCHANGE

BECK: *Elaboration wanted*

Miss Beck's article performs a useful service in specifying some of the differential considerations on which a program of counseling with parents of retarded children can successfully be based. ["Counseling Parents of Retarded Children," by Helen L. Beck, CHILDREN, November-December 1959.]

One hopes the author will be able to follow this thoughtful article with a further discussion of some areas she has left unclear or not touched upon at all.

For example, she includes parents who are "inaccessible" to treatment among those for whom only brief services are recommended. But are these parents inaccessible to both group and individual treatment? Experience seems to indicate that parents "who have not accepted the diagnosis" may still accept and greatly benefit from group sessions. Such parents often initially resist involvement in a one-to-one counseling relationship with a caseworker. The latter becomes the recipient of some of the feelings aroused by team members who, in giving a definite diagnosis, have "made" the feared "worst" come true. While such a par-

ent may be inaccessible to individual casework, the experience of being in a group of peers confronted by similar problems can be extremely helpful. In fact, one of Miss Beck's case examples illustrates this point.

I cannot quite agree with Miss Beck's statement that "parents have really to understand and accept the nature of their own problem . . . and be ready to identify with a larger group" before becoming effective members of parents' organizations. The type of participation in these groups and its meaning to individual parents obviously vary widely. However, my observations suggest that participation in such a group *in itself* often brings a parent to a grappling with, rather than a masking of, his problems in accepting a handicapped child. In fact, the mechanism that operates in such group participation may be similar to that observable in group counseling—a readiness to work through with one's peers problems one is not yet ready to share with a professional "outsider."

I wish Miss Beck would comment further about the parents who require only brief casework services because they have been able to come to terms with the traumatic problem of having had a mentally retarded child in an in-

tellectually highly competitive culture. How have such parents been able to summon their personal strengths so quickly? What are the elements of family relationships, social supports, ideology, and values that sustain them? Knowing more about these factors might provide clues to more effective help to persons needing it.

Alfred H. Katz

Head, Division of Social Welfare in Medicine, University of California School of Medicine, Los Angeles

Author's reply

I am grateful to Mr. Katz for his thoughtful comments on my article.

Several correspondents have raised the question about the short-term contacts mentioned there. In answer to this, I would like to draw attention to the following considerations:

1. The paper is concerned with casework counseling, which in our setting is just one facet of a multiple contact approach. Thus the final interview may represent merely a summarization of a process of diagnosis, discussions, and considerations. It offers an opportunity to explore the need for further contact either immediately or at later stages, as needs arise. Since clinic contact continues, the caseworker may reenter contact at any point.

2. The parents who have known about their child's retardation long before

coming to our clinic may have worked out an adjustment to the problem by the time we see them. All they may need at this point is reassurance that they are doing an effective job.

3. As Mr. Katz indicates, there are factors of personality makeup, family and community support, cultural and religious background that play their role in facilitating or hampering adjustment. The importance of such factors and their specific impact on adjustment might be perhaps best illustrated through case material at some later date.

Mr. Katz's remarks related to group participation really warrant considerate, careful thought and elaboration of the many tangibles and intangibles that make groups helpful to troubled people. There are many studies available in this area, and there is still much material for future endeavors.

Helen L. Beck

*Chief Psychiatric Social Worker,
Mental Retardation Unit, St. Christopher's Hospital for Children,
Philadelphia*

Steps to equilibrium

I would like to reemphasize Miss Beck's point that an unhurried diagnostic process can be therapeutic. One often sees attitudes of very upset, anxious parents change as they come into contact with the various clinic personnel, and often the fact that each team member devotes time without the feeling of being rushed enables parents to emerge with renewed courage and ability to face their situation more realistically.

The most crucial and vulnerable period in providing services to the parents is at the point when interpretation of the findings of the study is to be made, as Miss Beck observes. It is important not only to discuss the findings with parents, but also to be able to provide some answer to their concerns about what they can do to help their child.

Miss Beck has pointed out that not all parents need or are able to use help; but being prepared to offer them whatever help they need can influence the way in which they accept what has been learned in the study.

I feel that more can be done than just to help parents with their immediate problems concerning their child, through helping them look at themselves in relation to their own situation, apart from their child. Parents should

be discouraged from withdrawing from activities that will make their lives fuller and richer. One way in which some parents can be helped to regain their equilibrium and perspective is through identity with persons who face similar problems. Special parent groups set up by the clinic not only can be therapeutic, but also can serve as a means of preparing parents for membership in larger parent organizations such as the National Association for Retarded Children. I agree with Miss Beck that parents should be prepared for membership in such an organization in order to know what it is they wish to contribute to and gain.

Mary L. Yates

Social Worker, Services for the Retarded Child, District of Columbia Health Department

SANDUSKY: A judge's view

Annie Lee Sandusky's article, "Services to Neglected Children" [CHILDREN, January-February 1960], has compelled me to look back over my more than 20 years as a juvenile court judge with an historic eye that has seen many changes and refinements in community services to neglected children. Most noteworthy in this evolution has been the increased role taken by public welfare in assuming responsibility for services to children.

A few years ago in my own community our court staff was burdened with disproportionate numbers of so-called "protective" cases. Their primary function of meeting the needs of delinquent youth referred to juvenile court was being preempted by time-consuming neglect cases. In cooperative planning with the court and police officials, public welfare assumed responsibility for these neglected children, thus relieving the court of an administrative function which the other agency might handle more appropriately. As pointed out in Mrs. Sandusky's article, the city of Cleveland has reached a similar conclusion.

My own experience leads me to think that certain advantages to current programs for neglected children would follow from Mrs. Sandusky's suggestion that ". . . Mandatory legislation specifically defining the public welfare agency's responsibility for children who are neglected or abused is the best way

to make sure that all such children will receive social services." A juvenile court judge is only too aware of the many children who fall "in between"—for whom the public welfare agency cannot now offer either the quantity or quality of service demanded by the particular situation. With statutory responsibility for a complete service to children, the public welfare department conceivably would be in a better position to develop the necessary auxiliary services such as emergency receiving homes for infants and shelter care for older children.

I would like also to emphasize that I do not believe there is an adequate substitute for the mature, professionally oriented caseworker in working with neglected children and their families. Too frequently yesterday's neglected children are the delinquents I am seeing in court today, and it is only too obvious that skilled casework assistance was not utilized at a time when it might have done the most good.

It is, however, encouraging to observe how the developments in private and public agencies' services to neglected children have brought these agencies into a cooperative team relationship with the juvenile court. We are beginning to talk the same language at both administrative and casework levels. At long last, the allied disciplines of law and social work are finding it possible to communicate "in behalf of the child." Clearly, social work has had to face up to certain legal realities as applied to the rights of children and their parents; at the same time, the legal profession has had to come to accept the basic role and competence of the social worker in child neglect matters.

Donald E. Long

*Judge, Circuit Court of Oregon,
Portland.*

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SOME U.S. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL WORKERS

Publications for which prices are quoted are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. Orders should be accompanied by payment. Twenty-five percent discount on quantities of 100 or more.

ADMINISTRATION AND STAFF TRAINING IN INSTITUTIONS FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. CB Publication No. 377, 1959. 47 pp. 20 cents.

Reports a workshop planned to throw new light on the task of professionalizing institutional services so that more effective service is rendered to the children and youth committed to institutions for juvenile delinquents. The workshop, attended by selected administrators of such institutions, was financed by a grant from the Ford Foundation.

CHILD WELFARE STATISTICS 1957

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. CB Statistical Series No. 51. 1959. 36 pp. Single copies available from the Bureau without charge.

Among other data included on State and public child welfare services are statistics on children's living arrangements, full-time and part-time personnel, vacant professional positions, expenditures for various purposes, educational leave, and caseworkers' salaries

and caseloads. Figures on children receiving services through voluntary agencies are also included, as are data on adoptions.

HEALTH STATISTICS FROM THE U.S. NATIONAL HEALTH SURVEY; CHILDREN AND YOUTH, SELECTED HEALTH CHARACTERISTICS, UNITED STATES, JULY 1957-JUNE 1958.

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service. PHS Publication No. 584-C1. 1959. 43 pp. 35 cents.

A presentation through charts and text of information on the amount and kinds of illness, injury, and disability experienced by young people in various age groups under 25 in the year ended June 30, 1958, and on the extent to which they used the services of physicians, dentists, and hospitals. Respiratory conditions accounted for nearly two-thirds of all acute illnesses in each of the age groups.

FOOD; THE YEARBOOK OF AGRICULTURE 1959.

Department of Agriculture. 736 pp. \$2.25.

This first of the Department of Agriculture's yearbooks since 1939 to be devoted to food and nutrition presents laymen with a scientific explanation of the components of food and discusses

these in relation to the body's needs. Included, among others, are chapters on the nutrients, health and nutritional status of various segments of the population (including children in institutions), recommended food allowances, needs of various age groups and of expectant and nursing mothers, protection of food quality, developing food habits, and feeding programs.

EDUCATION OF THE SEVERELY RETARDED CHILD; A BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REVIEW.

Harold M. Williams and J. E. Wallace Wallin. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. OOE Bulletin No. 12. 1959. 26 pp. 15 cents.

Part of the source material for a forthcoming publication of the Office of Education, this bibliography includes about 350 annotated references on the education of the "middle-range" retarded child (IQ from about 30 to 50).

CRIPPLED CHILDREN'S PROGRAM

1957. Sadie Saffian. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau. CB Statistical Series No. 54. 1959. 32 pp. Single copies available from the Bureau without charge.

Summarizes statistics on children receiving various types of services under the federally aided State crippled children's programs in 1957 and analyzes trends in the volume and type of services and the conditions for which treatment was given. Additional information is presented for children in regional heart centers, those with muscular dystrophy, and amputees.

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